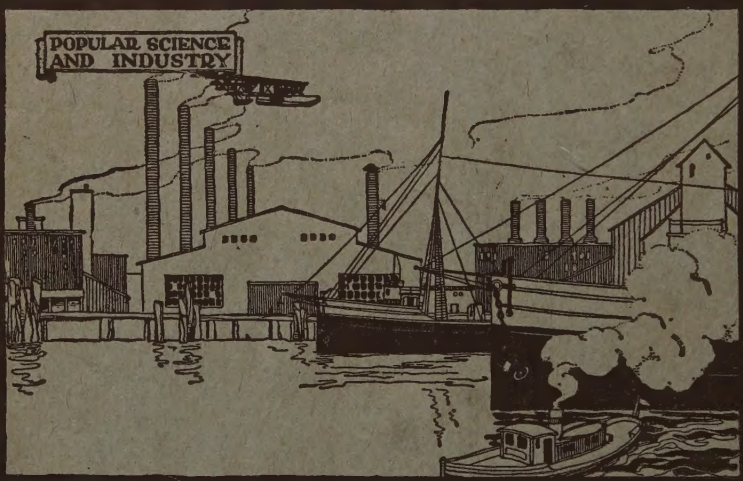

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OUR COUNTRY
IN ROMANCE

OLD WORLD
TRAVELOGUES

LEADERS
OF ALL TIMES

THE DREADED SIMOON—The Scourge of the Desert

The fury of the simoon is like the blast of a furnace. Winged with the whirlwind, and charioted with thunder, it blasts everything in its course. It has the appearance of a train of fire whose murky smoke fills the whole wide expanse of the desert.

THE HUMAN INTEREST LIBRARY

VISUALIZED KNOWLEDGE

VOLUME IV.

OLD WORLD TRAVELOGUES

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OUTLINE OF CONTENTS

VOLUME IV

OLD WORLD TRAVELOGUES

OLD WORLD TRAVELOGUES 7

It was a saying of Lord Bacon that "History maketh one wise." Perhaps this is not universally true, but one can scarcely traverse the history and geography of the Old World with its heroic deeds, picturesque scenes and peoples, splendid buildings, or hallowed places, without having become wiser and better, as well as having enjoyed many an hour of keen pleasure. With the most interesting of guides, we visit old and new cities, historic rivers of scenic beauty or castle-lined banks; monument-covered battle-fields, or the haunts of poets and cavaliers.

AUSTRIA, HUNGARY, CZECHO-SLOVAKIA AND POLAND 9
GREECE 19
RUSSIA 30
LAPLAND 41
JUGOSLAVIA, RUMANIA, ALBANIA, BULGARIA, GREECE AND TURKEY 43
DOWN THE BLUE DANUBE 53
GREAT BRITAIN 63
GERMANY 96
BELGIUM AND THE NETHERLANDS 120
ITALY 130
SCANDINAVIA (DENMARK, ICELAND, NORWAY AND SWEDEN) 139
FRANCE 143
SWITZERLAND 153
SPAIN AND PORTUGAL 156
AFRICA 161
ABYSSINIA 180
THE SAHARA 185
EGYPT 194
INDIA 211
JAPAN 233
PHILIPPINES 246
CHINA 259
HOMELAND OF JESUS 273

NEW WORLD TRAVELOGUES 289

It is not alone Europe or the Orient that will invite the traveller seeking interesting journeys. Our own western world is full of charm and attraction and these pages tell something of our neighbors to the north and south, all of whom are really Americans too. Other volumes in our series tell the story of the United States.

ESKIMOS 290
MEXICO 297
CANADA 316
SOUTH AMERICA 327

GEOGRAPHICAL AND HISTORICAL OUTLINES OF THE WORLD 336

After taking travel journeys to the many countries of the world we often want to find the concise facts about the history, government, education, resources, climate and cities of each one. Here is the information on these and many other points about every country, and at the end of the outlines are comparative charts that visualize the important rivers, lakes, islands, waterfalls and mountains.

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS IN VOLUME IV

Figures in parentheses (2) indicate more than one illustration on the page.

The Dreaded Simoon (in color) ..... Frontispiece

PAGE

House of Parliament *and* Maria Theresa Monument, Vienna (2) 8
Street Scene in Ragusa 15
Bride and Groom *and* A Wayside Custom, East Carpathians (2) 16
Wedding Loaf *and* Spring Festival, Ruthenia (2) 17
Ruins of the Temple of the Olympian Zeus 19
Olympic Games, Greece (3) 21
Mediaeval Fortifications at Corinth 23
The Parthenon *and* The Acropolis (2) 25
Stadium at Athens 29
Kremlin *and* Kitaigorod, Moscow (2) 30
Peasant Costume, Russia 31
Peter the Great Shearing His Flock 33
Singing the Old Folk Runes 37
Count Leo Tolstoy *and* Great Bell of Moscow (2) 38
Bride-Choosing, Christmas Eve, Russia 39
Bride Bowing to Mother-in-law, Russia 40
Laplanders (2) 41
Driving on Skis *and* A Summer Camp, Lapland (2) 42
Constantinople 43
Balkan Costumes (12) 45
Julian Addressing the Christians 46
Mosque of St. Sophia, Constantinople 46
Opening of the First Balkan War 51
Relief Map of Danube River 53
Panorama of the Danube 55
Sword Dance, Serbia 61
Bulgarian Peasants Crossing Danube on a Raft 61
Houses of Parliament, London 63
Men Who Came by the Old, Old Road 65
Romans *and* the Roman Wall (2) 68
St. Augustine Introducing Christianity (2) 73
Alfred the Great (2) 76
Salisbury, Dorchester *and* Winchester, England (3) 77
Invasion of William the Conqueror (4) 80
Morris Dancers, Stratford-on-Avon 88
Reading the Laws, Isle of Man 88
Tower of London 90
Trafalgar Square, London 91
Rottweil, Small German City 98
Zwinger Gallery, Dresden 100
An Old Castle, Meersburg 104
Bingen *and* Lorelei Rock, Rhine River (2) 113
Heidelberg, Showing Heidelberg Castle *and* The Rhine at Cologne (2) 118
Palais de Justice, Brussels 120
Beach at Scheveningen *and* Canal in Volendam (2) 121
Bruges 123
Typical Dutch Windmill 125
Battle of Waterloo, near Brussels 126
Fisher Folk in Volendam 129
Milan Cathedral 130
Florence, Showing Cathedral 130
Roman Forum 130
Monument to Columbus, Genoa 131
Giotto's Tower, Florence 131
Cathedral, Baptistery, Leaning Tower, Pisa 132
Campo Santo, Genoa 133
Palazzo Vecchio, Florence 133
Pompeii Forum, Mt. Vesuvius in Distance 133
Pompeii, General View 135
Doges' Palace, Venice 135
Church of St. Mark's, Venice 136
Amalfi Drive 136
Ca'D'Oro Palace, Venice 136
Church of St. Peter's, Rome 136

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS—Continued

Figures in parentheses (2) indicate more than one illustration on the page.

PAGE

Swedish National Dance *and* Christmas Tree in Sweden (2) 138
Swedish National Dress 141
Bridal Dress, Denmark *and* Norwegian National Dress (2) 142
Paris 143
Lavoisier and His Wife 144
Along the Boulevards, Paris 145
Opera House, Paris 146
Louis Pasteur in His Laboratory, Paris 149
Swiss National Game of "Hornussen" 152
A Cantonal Parliament, Switzerland 152
Costume, Berne 153
Alpine Horn 154
"Twelfth Night" Demons, Zurich (country) 155
Swiss Easter Custom 155
Blessing the Cattle, Springtime, Valais 155
Awaiting the King and Queen of Spain, Salamanca 156
Religious Pilgrimage, Seville 158
Cairo, Egypt 161
New *and* Old Homes in Africa (2) 164
King of the Forest Waits for the Train 167
Northern Nigerian Hunter 170
Northern Nigerian Trumpeters 171
West African Bride *and* A Chief, Jukin Tribe (2) 172
Woman of the Gerkua Tribe 173
African Juju Images, with Attendants 174
A Munchu Hunting Juju *and* A Medicine Man of Maiduguri (2) 176
South African Customs (3) 178
Puppet Show, Bida *and* Difalo Dancers (2) 179
Abyssinian Church *and* Dress (2) 181
Avoiding the Evil Eye, Abyssinia 182
Somali Milk Boys 183
Devotion in the Silent Desert 185
A Desert Caravan 186
Antelope and Wild Sheep, Sahara 187
Tuareg Man 188
Typical Oasis 190
The Mirage 192
The Sphinx 194
The Hour of Prayer 195
The Great Pyramid (2) 196
Gallery of the Great Pyramid 197
Column in Temple at Dendera 199
Inside the Great Pyramid (2) 200
The Nileometer *and* Alabaster Mosque (2) 201
Seti the First *and* An Arab Cafe (2) 204
Old Irrigating Machinery, Egypt 206
Sakkahs, or Water Carriers 207
Temple of Luxor *and* Assuan Dam, Egypt (2) 209
Elephants, India 211
The Jama Masjid, Delhi 214
A Ghat at Benares 217
The Taj Mahal, Agra 218
A Gyan Bapi, or Pool of Knowledge 221
Sikh Priest 222
Hindu Customs (4) 223
Hindu Marriage Procession 225
Parsi Lady at Her Devotions *and* Dogras Charcoal Burner (2) 229
The Mohurrum Festival, Madras 230
Indian Dancing Girl 232
Temple Gateway, Nagasaki 233
Tea House Girls *and* Little Japanese Girl (2) 239
Asakusa Park, Tokio 239
Nogi Street, Yokohama 241
Charming Scenes in Japan (4) 242
Japanese Street Scenes (2) 244
Tinguian Wedding, Philippines 246

Figures in parentheses (2) indicate more than one illustration on the page.

PAGE

Bagobo, Ifugao, Manabo *and* Mangyan Types (4) 247
Tinguian *and* Ifugao Types (2) 250
A Bagabo *and* a Moro Man (2) 251
Ifugaos of Northern Luzon in Wedding Dress 253
Kalinga *and* Mangyan Types (2) 255
Ifugao Warrior with Head Trophies 257
Chinese Fishing with Cormorants 259
Native Industries of the Chinese (9) 262
Old Changhai *and* Canton River Scenes (2) 269
Two Chinese Types (2) 270
Chinese at Home (2) 271
River Jordan 273
Jewish Funeral, Mount of Olives 275
Church of the Holy Sepulcher, Jerusalem (interior) 275
Outside the Temple, Jerusalem 276
Church of the Holy Sepulcher (exterior) 276
Via Dolorosa 276
Garden of Gethsemane 276
Shepherd and Herd 278
From the Front Door of the El Aksa 278
King Solomon's Stables 278
Reading the Law 279
Wailing Place of the Jews 280
Christmas Procession, Bethlehem 282
Supposed Birthplace of Christ (2) 283
The Samaritan Passover *and* The Feast of Tabernacles (2) 285
Jerusalem from the Mount of Olives 288
Eskimo Winter Snow House 290
Eskimo Women Carrying Their Babies 291
A Greenland Beauty 293
Cutting up a Seal *and* Eskimo Boys' Games (2) 294
A Tattooed Woman 295
A Lonely Sepulcher 296
Popocatepetl, "Smoking Mountain" of Mexico 297
Spanish *and* French Invaders of Mexico (2) 301
Maximilian Before His Execution 305
Notable Examples of Mexican Buildings (3) 307
Mexican Home *and* A Lenten Penance, Mexico (2) 309
Amateur Bull Fight *and* Public Letter Writer, Mexico (2) 310
Holy Water Carrier 311
Tehuantepec Woman 313
Favorite Pastime in the "Land of Tomorrow" 315
Parliament Buildings at Ottawa 316
Quebec Showing Dufferin Terrace and Chateau Frontenac 320
Canada in Summer and in Winter 322
The Great Natural Wealth of Canada (3) 323
Spanish Monument *and* President and Cabinet, Buenos Aires (2) 326
Traffic Officer in Antofagasta, Chile 327
Coypu *and* Chinchilla (2) 328
Travelling in Peru 329
Top of the Andes Between Brazil and Chile 330
Jungle Island off Coast of Chile *and* Plaza in Antofagasta, Chile (2) 331
Ranch House in Southern Chile, Natural History Museum, Sao Paulo, Brazil .. 333
Brazilian Centennial, 1922, *and* Arrival of Secretary Hughes, Rio De Janeiro (2) 334

MAPS AND CHARTS

The Danube River 53
Growth of the Late German Empire (4) 106
Picture Map of the Rhine River 111
Picture Map of Africa 160
Japanse Empire 235
Mexico and Central America 315
Comparative Physical Features, Eastern Hemisphere 388-9
Comparative Physical Features, Western Hemisphere 390-1

OLD WORLD TRAVELOGUES

HISTORICAL AND DESCRIPTIVE

AUSTRIA, HUNGARY, CZECHO-SLOVAKIA AND POLAND

THE GLORY OF ANCIENT GREECE

THE BROAD LAND OF RUSSIA

ABOVE THE ARCTIC CIRCLE IN LAPLAND

THE BALKAN PENINSULA: JUGOSLAVIA, RUMANIA, ALBANIA, BULGARIA, GREECE AND TURKEY IN EUROPE

DOWN THE BLUE DANUBE

THE STORY OF GREAT BRITAIN

A STORY PICTURE OF GERMANY

THE STORIED RHINE

THE LOW COUNTRIES: BELGIUM AND THE NETHERLANDS

ITALY: THE LAND OF ART

SCANDINAVIA: LAND OF THE VIKINGS OF OLD

PARIS AND THE FRENCH PEOPLE

PICTURESQUE SWITZERLAND

BEYOND THE PYRENEES IN SPAIN AND PORTUGAL

A WONDER JOURNEY THROUGH AFRICA

NATIVE AFRICAN CUSTOMS AND CEREMONIALS

ABYSSINIA: ITS CUSTOMS AND SUPERSTITIONS

THE SAHARA AND ITS INHABITANTS

EGYPT'S WONDERFUL STORY

THE ANCIENT EMPIRE OF THE MOGULS

JAPAN: THE LAND OF THE RISING SUN

PHILIPPINE NATIVES AND CUSTOMS

THE CHINESE REPUBLIC

THE HOMELAND OF JESUS

HOUSE OF PARLIAMENT, VIENNA

This beautiful structure contains the two Chambers of Parliament, Vienna. A magnificent edifice of white marble in the Grecian style, its walls are enriched by columns, statues and reliefs, with great groups in bronze upon the roof.

THE MARIA THERESA MONUMENT IN VIENNA

Erected in memory of Austria's famous ruler who was born at Vienna in 1717. The Empress is enthroned on a granite pedestal about which are grouped statues and reliefs of great men prominent during her reign.

AUSTRIA, HUNGARY, CZECHO-SLOVAKIA AND POLAND

IT WAS towards the end of the seventh century, when the great Charlemagne was gathering the rule of Christian Europe into his strong hand, that a province grew into shape on the Danube, near the end of the Eastern Alps. This was the East Mark, or boundary of Charlemagne's empire, the eastern outpost of the German peoples forever fighting back the oncoming Slav races from the east and northeast. This province is still called the East Kingdom, for that is the meaning of Austria, and from the kernel of the two states of Upper and Lower Austria on the Danube, the dominions of its sovereigns gradually spread over the kingdom of Bohemia and Moravia to the north, over the mountains that shut in Bohemia to a strip of country beyond the northern slopes of the Carpathians, now called Galicia. Southwards, too, the dominions spread, taking in the Tyrol, the Eastern Alps, and the provinces between the Danube and the Adriatic.

For 600 years the story of Austria was the history of the dealings of a family, the family of the Hapsburgs, with their neighbors. When Rudolf of Hapsburg, in the thirteenth century, was chosen by the electors to head the German states as Holy Roman Emperor, few guessed the resolute character of the man who was to do so much towards restoring law and order, and in establishing the fortunes of his house. In the story of Germany we read of the extroadinary rise to power of his descendants, of Maximilian, of Charles V, and many others, and how by conquest, by treaty, by marriages with heiresses, they gained the Tyrol, the Netherlands, and Spain with its golden empire across the ocean,

The long and bitter story of the House of Hapsburg

With some exceptions, the title of Holy Roman Emperor remained with the Hapsburgs, which caused them to be much mixed up with the Pope and the kingdoms and duchies in Italy. Unhappily, the connection with Spain, always fervently Roman Catholic, nourished in Austria a very bitter spirit with regard to the Reformation, and during the terrible Thirty Years War the Hapsburgs were chiefly to blame for the prolonged ruin and misery spread over Germany.

Bitter and cruel have been the persecutions practiced by the House of Austria, both in the matter of religion, and in the destruction of old rights and liberties, in the states that fell under their despotic and narrow rule. Spain and the Netherlands long since passed into other hands; Austria has now no place or voice in Germany, no footing in Italy, only a small province on the Upper Danube and in the Tyrol. The French Revolution and Napoleon together caused the downfall of the Holy Roman Empire, and the ruler of Austria took the new title—Emperor of Austria—before he laid down the old one.

The struggle of the Bohemian people for freedom and independence

Bohemia was settled by a Slav people called the Czechs, and developed into a kingdom a century earlier than the formation of the East Mark, and eventful indeed have been its relations with the neighbors all around it. Bad kings and good kings succeeded each other, whose power rose and fell. Now Austria was subject to Bohemia, now to Silesia and the other country beyond the mountains, Poland. Then all was

reversed, and Bohemia had a hard fight for existence. In the fourteenth century came the beginning of the struggle about religion, which raged round Wyclif in England and Huss in Bohemia. A gentle and good princess, Anne of Bohemia, traveled at the end of the fourteenth century across the thick forests and heaths of the north plain of Germany, and then faced the waves of the North Sea to reach England. Her effigy lies beside that of the husband who loved her so dearly, Richard II, among the circle of "Royals" in Westminster Abbey. It is said that Anne did much to help the rise of the *Reformation.

Long and gallant were the struggles made by the Bohemians to preserve their liberties and their distinctive language. But the Austrians, though frequently checked, gradually became stronger in their power over the country.

THE CRUSHING OF THE BOHEMIAN NATION AND THE SPLITTING UP OF POLAND

At last, in the Thirty Years War, even the victories of the Swedish king, Gustavus Adolphus, could not save them, and for long years the stifling, absolute rule of Austria became fixed and lasting, so that progress and the national feeling and language were crushed. But not hopelessly so. Bohemia took a brave share in the struggles for freedom that went on all over Europe during the last century, and had the courage to declare her independence in the course of the late World War. The Slovaks and Moravians joined the Bohemians to form the new republic of Czecho-Slavakia, concerning which you will learn more later on.

Bohemia lies in the basin of the Elbe, which, like the Oder, drains to the north. By the "gates" forced by the rivers through the encircling ring of mountains, we pass to the province of Galicia. This, too, was settled in the far past by a Slav nation, the Poles. Constant and bewildering were the changes that came to them through the centuries. About the time that William of Normandy was conquering England, the Poles were forcing their way through the Carpathians and overrunning the great plains they enclose. Four hundred years later the King of Poland was chosen to be King of Bohemia. Then, when the Tudors were making themselves absolute in England, Poland was extending its borders in every direction, and securing reforms of many kinds. After that it lost its independence, regained it, lost it again, and suffered much. We see it flashing out in brave deeds, as in the relief of Vienna, when it drove away the Turks, and then comes the sad story of the sharing-out of this ancient and fine kingdom among stronger Powers. But Poland rose and became a nation once more in 1918.

THE MIXED RACES AND STATES THAT HAVE BEEN SLOWLY ABSORBED BY AUSTRIA

South of the Danube other Slav races settled as well as Teutons and Italians, and many states of mixed nationalities grew up and have been gradually absorbed by Austria. At Innsbruck, the capital of the Tyrol, is a bronze and marble memorial of the union of the Tyrol with Austria over 500 years ago. The famous tomb of the Emperor Maximilian is in the cathedral there, though he is buried elsewhere. But more interesting than all the reminders of royalty in Innsbruck are the relics and monument of the patriot Hofer, who made such noble and determined efforts to defend his fatherland from the Austrian oppression. "It is time," he wrote on little bits of paper, and cast them to

*Reformation: The movement which made many English, German, Dutch and Scandinavian churches separate from Rome.

the hurrying streams to carry far and wide, and rouse the Tyrolese, ready and waiting to fly to arms at his call.

Salzburg is another famous Austrian town south of the Danube, full of the story of the past as regards the power of the Church. The town of Enns gives a link with English history in the times of the Crusades. Its walls were built with the money gathered with such difficulty to pay the ransom of Richard Cœur de Lion when he was taken prisoner on his way home through Austria.

The Ancient Kingdom of Hungary and Its Thousand Years of Struggle

Of all the neighbors with whom Austria fought with varying success as the years rolled on, the most distinct and considerable were the Hungarians. A century after the East Mark was formed, a race of people from Asia, the Magyars, quite different from the Teutons in stock and speech, burst through a gap in the Carpathian Mountains, swarmed down the great valley of the river Tisza, the German Theiss, and on to the Danube, settling about its course where it makes a deep bend to the south. The kingdom of Hungary, which was thus founded, is larger than the united states of Austria. Its constitution is perhaps older than that of England, and the story of its relations with Austria is one of incessant struggle to preserve its ancient and free manner of government.

St. Stephen was Hungary's first Christian king, and under him the Hungarians became a settled and civilized nation about a thousand years ago. He is a national hero, whose example and deeds are still held up to reverent admiration.

Hungary has been called the "bulwark and shield of Christendom," so often has it withstood the attacks of the Mohammedan Turks. The terror of these invaders along the old Danube highway hung over Europe for centuries, just as the terror of the Danes hung over England. There was a Turk's tax, just as there was a Dane's tax, with which to organize resistance or pacify the invaders with bribes. Poland, Bohemia, Austria, as well as Hungary, had constantly to fight them, but Hungary, owing to its position, had to bear the brunt of their devastations.

The First Prince of the House of Hapsburg to Rule over Hungary

In the history of Hungary, full of progress, loss, alliance with neighbors, and bitter wars with them, there stand out many great rulers. One of them paid a visit to London after Henry V gained his great victory of Agincourt, to try to make peace between England and France. This was Sigismund, who became King of Hungary, and was elected Holy Roman Emperor. It was a great honor, but left him little time to attend to driving back the Turks, who won, under a later king, the overwhelming victory of Mohacs. A desolate time followed, in which John Hunyadi fought bravely as the champion of Christianity against the Moslems.

A prince of the House of Hapsburg, when that family was at its greatest glory, was elected King of Hungary as well as of Bohemia. The Turks did not like this, and for long years the unhappy country was ruined by war; but the Austrian rule had come to last for over 300 years. There were oppressive taxes, risings of the people, and every effort made to destroy the nationality, the language, the free spirit of the Hungarians. Hope revived at times, and the Hungarian nobles responded to the appeal of Maria Theresa. There was a glimpse of freedom when Hungary was recognized as an independent nation, when

the storm of the French Revolution was about to burst; but the privileges were lost again, and it needed long years of patriotic endeavor through the first half of last century to wrest back, bit by bit, the ancient rights so long trampled under foot by the Austrians.

HUNGARY SAT SIDE BY SIDE WITH AUSTRIA IN THE DUAL MONARCHY

During this time many Hungarian exiles went to England, among them the brave leader Kossuth. It was in June, 1868, that Francis Joseph, the Emperor of Austria, was crowned King of Hungary, with the ancient crown of St. Stephen, after promising to govern according to the old constitution of the country. And so it came to pass that the blood of the patriots was not shed in vain through the long years of struggle; for though often all liberty seemed lost, fresh effort ever gave new hope of success, and for forty years Hungary shared with Austria the government of the dual monarchy.

"God save Francis the Emperor" were the opening words of the Austrian National Anthem, set to the beautiful tune to which we sing the hymn "Praise the Lord, ye Heavens adore Him." The sound greeted the dignified, gray-haired old man who was both Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary, whenever he appeared in public. His long reign began in the revolutionary times of 1848, and when he died, during the sorrows of the World War in 1916, it was plain that without him the empire would soon crack and fall apart.

THE BLENDING OF FRAGMENTS THAT MADE UP THE UNITED EMPIRE

Napoleon III, who had such a very different experience after reverses, said that Francis Joseph was the only monarch in Europe who could return to his capital after defeat, disaster, and loss of territory, and yet be received with devotion and affectionate enthusiasm. Many are the stories of his kindness to little children and to the poor, and of his tact and good feeling in carrying out his share of the government of an empire of such varied nationalities. We must remember that there was no united Austrian nation, no common Austrian tongue; but that the empire consisted of a leading German state, broken off from the rest of the German-speaking peoples when Prussia rose to be their head; of various states that were fragments of other nationalities, some still speaking their own languages, some more or less absorbed by their German rulers. Besides these, there was the whole independent nationality of the Hungarians, of quite different origin from the Germans, with its own speech, manners, customs, and constitution.

Now Austria and Hungary are separate republics. Bohemia, Moravia and Slovakia make up the new land of Czecho-Slovakia, and the other parts of the former empire have gone to Italy, to Poland, to Roumania, or to the Serbs.

THE OLD CITY OF VIENNA AND THE BUSY TRAFFIC ON THE DANUBE

The old town lies unchanged, surrounded by a broad road lined with trees, called the Ringstrasse, beyond which buildings of every kind have grown up during the last century. In the old cathedral and churches, in the museums and picture galleries, are many reminders of the men and women famous in their country's story. In the vault of the Hapsburgs lies Marie Louise, who was made to marry Napoleon, and their son, forgotten by France, who died when about twenty.

Festooned round the cannon in the courtyard of the arsenal is a chain of some 8000 links, which the Turks threw across the Danube nearly 400 years ago to hinder the traffic.

The traffic on the Danube is very different now from what it was then. Rafts of wood still float down stream from the forests, and rough little flat-bottomed boats still paddle about from village to village. But, in addition, there are now regular lines of steamers for passengers and goods, steam tugs for the barges, and steam and electric launches for the rich folk who drive automobiles in the Ringstrasse, and have country estates in the Tyrol and the Adriatic lands, and other beautiful parts of the country, as well as palaces in Vienna. There are over 2,000,000 people in Vienna, many of whom are engaged in various manufactures, and in building ships for the navigation of the Danube.

Czecho-Slovakia, Newly Made From Bohemia, Moravia and Slovakia

There are many railway routes into Bohemia and Moravia from Vienna, for both countries are rich in coal, and carry on many manufactures. In the little diamond-shaped province of Bohemia, about two-thirds the size of Scotland, there is a very busy population of over 6,000,000 people. Many different crops are cultivated in the valleys, and work in mines and factories is carried on all over the country. Metal industries, such as the manufacture of engines and machinery, are carried on at Prague, the capital, also the making of cottons and woolens, sugar from beets, fine glass from the decaying granite of the mountains, and paper-making in the wooded hills. Moravia is a great woolen-manufacturing region. Between its capital, Brünn, and Vienna was fought Napoleon's famous battle of Austerlitz.

Silesia, divided between Poland, Germany and Czecho-Slovakia is reached by valleys that pierce the mountain wall and drain north. These "gates," through which trains run so easily now, night and day, to carry on the business north and south of the mountains, were formerly often the scenes of great battles.

Revived Poland

The Polish lands north of the Carpathians are very cold in winter, and the plains, which in summer are green with cereals and potato crops, lie white and frozen through the long, cold months.

A City of Glistening Salt That Lies 900 Feet Below the Ground

On the hillsides in these parts are dark patches of forests. Near Cracow, the old capital of Poland, is a whole town of mines 900 feet below the surface of the ground. It is two and a half miles long, three-quarters of a mile broad; all is glittering white, for it is formed of salt. These great beds of salt carry us back to ages long before history began, when this part of Europe was under the sea. When the water disappeared it left behind the salt it carried, and there it has remained stored in the bosom of Mother Earth.

What a contrast are these wind-swept plains and valleys of Polish-Galicia to the former Austrian provinces of the south, now a part of the kingdom of the Croats and Serbs. There is snow and ice on the heights of the Tyrol, but the valleys are beautiful and sheltered, with picturesque castles on the slopes, and gay little streams and waterfalls making music everywhere. The lower plains are covered with rich crops and cattle.

As the deep blue of the Adriatic comes in sight between the slender stems of the palm-trees, the olive, the vine, the mulberry all flourish in the sunshine, and the roses in winter remind us of the Riviera and its balmy air. Trieste, which since the World War is part of Italy, is still the principal seaport for Austria.

Along the coast strip of Dalmatia, so studded with islands, are many fine harbors, especially the large, beautiful harbor of Cattaro, where a whole fleet can ride at ease. But the mountains come down so close to the sea that the harbors are not of much use. The well-wooded mountains and fertile valleys of Bosnia and Herzegovina lie behind Dalmatia. Till 1908 these provinces belonged to Turkey, but were governed by Austria; now they are part of the Serb-Croat Kingdom.

The free city of Fiume, desired both by Italy, and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, is the port for the Hungarian capital, Buda-Pesth. This splendid double city—Buda on one side of the Danube, Pesth on the other—lies in the heart of Hungary, near the great southward bend of the river.

How the trains run out of one country into another

If we travel to it from Vienna by train, we find when at the Hungarian frontier, that the Austrian guards take down the German notices, and Hungarian officials replace them by Hungarian notices; the engine-drivers are changed too, so completely do we pass from one country to another.

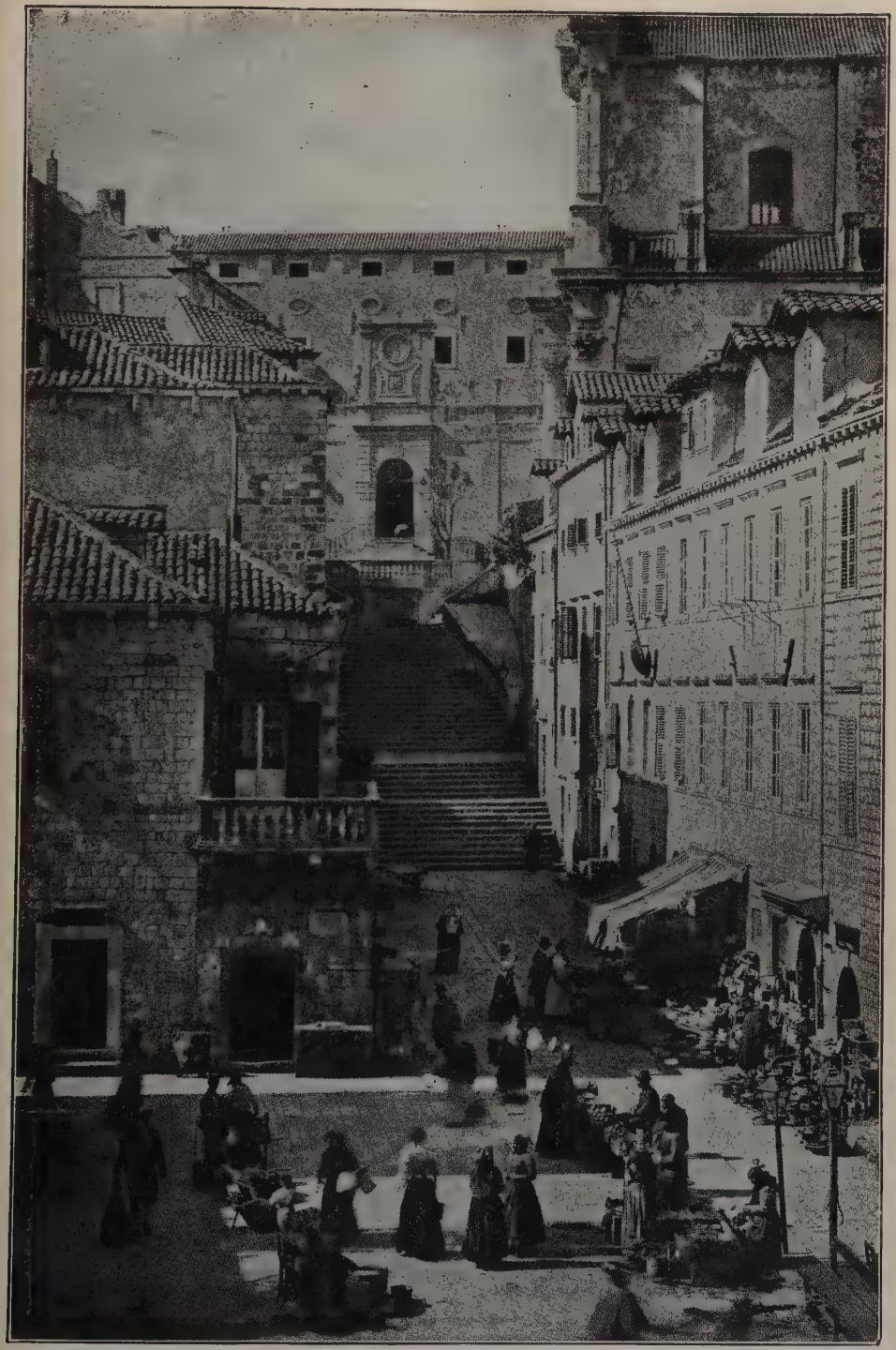
The numerous agricultural museums and colleges in Buda-Pesth, as well as the large flour-milling works, remind us of the chief source of wealth of Hungary—its wide plains of fertile soil. As we travel on the railways that cross these plains in every direction, or by the magnificent river routes, we can understand the saying that the plains of Hungary are a battlefield of human labor. The full waters of the Drave and the Save, which join the Danube on the south, and of the Tisza, which drains the grand circle of the Carpathians, are regulated and connected by canals, and used to water otherwise dry regions; and so we see fields of golden grain stretching to the horizon. Hungarian flour is said to be the finest in the world. In other parts is fine pasturage, and we exclaim in wonder at the thousands of beautiful horses, the white cattle with wide-spreading horns, the herds of black buffaloes, roaming at will as far as eye can see.

The great plains are bounded on the north by the Carpathians. They are famed for their beautiful scenery, the highest mountains rising to about 9000 feet, and for their hot springs, but above all for their great mineral wealth. Here are found coal, iron, copper, and other useful metals; also salt and gems.

An opal-mine worked 1000 years, and caverns like cathedrals

As we read of the wonder of underground Hungary, we think of the Arabian Nights, and all the fairy stories in which we have ever delighted. For besides an opal-mine which has been worked for a thousand years, and vast caverns with great cathedral-like pillars, and drapery in stone of every beautiful shape, there is a most extraordinary cavern of ice, discovered only a few years ago. As we draw near to its mouth, its icy breath is seen on the trees and bushes round as sparkling hoar-frost, even on the warmest days.

We step inside and the cold is Arctic and freezing indeed, and all round are solid blocks and walls of snowy ice in fantastic shapes. Just the haunt for fairies, we think as we look at the two little butterflies imprisoned in a great block of clear ice near the entrance. Their merry dance was cut short—no one knows how long ago. Beautiful and wonderful as it all is, we are quite glad to return to warmth and life and the light of the sun. We see many different picturesque costumes in various parts of the country, and at the fairs are many gypsies, playing their wild and interesting music.



The Balkan States from the west fail to stop at Ragusa, one of the picturesque Dalmatian outposts of Austrian rule. This photograph shows a characteristic market scene before the Church of the Jesuits and Military Hospital.

BRIDE AND BRIDEGROOM, RUTHENIA

The bridegroom's fur cap is ornamented with a gilded wreath, and four knobs made of red wool threads. The bride wears a wreath of the same evergreen plant adorned with the same knobs—the four points of the sky whence good luck is expected to come to them.

A WAYSIDE CUSTOM, EAST CARPATHIANS

In the mountains, where drinking-water is scarce, a jug of water and a drinking-cup are placed on a pole at the roadside. The traveler blesses his benefactor, making the sign of the cross. For this reason a crucifix is usually erected near the pole.

EACH RACE OR BRANCH PRESERVES ITS SOCIAL CUSTOMS

For centuries this section of Central Europe, with its varied physical characteristics, ranging from vast Alpine regions to the boundless plains, has been the meeting-place of East and West, and the dwelling place of the three great races of Europe: the Germans, the Latins and the Slavs. To make the picture still more varied and complex, each race is divided into a number of branches, consisting of peoples having separate language, religion, traditions and customs. Thus, among the Germans we find representatives of the Saxons, Franks and Suabians; the Latins are divided into Italians and Roumanians; and the Slavs are divided into Czechs, Poles, Ruthenians, Slovaks, Croatians and Servians. And in the midst of them live other peoples belonging to different races altogether. Such are the Hungarians, who, coming from Asia a little over a thousand years ago, have consolidated themselves here into a powerful nation.

We meet these various peoples clad in their own national and highly picturesque costumes; we find them passionately clinging to their national and religious sentiments, and we see them greatly attached to their ancient modes of life and to their old customs. It is in the rural districts that the national characteristics of the people have been most strongly developed, and it is there that the old customs remain.

The Ruthenians, whose country is now a part of Poland, probably surpass all the other peoples in the quaintness of their customs. Especially interesting is the Ruthenian wedding. Before the ceremony the bride is dressed by the bridesmaids. While she is sitting on a chair in the middle of the room they put on her head a wreath made of artificial flowers, more or less gilt, and trimmed with the colored ribbons, and

THE WEDDING LOAF, RUTHENIA

A large loaf is prepared and baked by relations and friends invited for the purpose, who sing songs while the baking is in progress. Besides this "korowaj," smaller loaves of the same shape are made.

A SPRING FESTIVAL, RUTHENIA

In spring, before sowing, the peasants say prayers on the field. Tapers are burned in a three-branched candlestick, between which and the corn are placed two loaves of bread, the symbol of their hopes.

during the whole time they sing certain songs of a rather melancholy melody.

It is the usual custom among the Slavonic peoples for the bridegroom's party to go to the bride's house, and to start together to church. Among the Ruthenians, after the ceremony is over, while the wedding party goes to the bridegroom's house or to the village inn, the bride returns home with the bridesmaids and her girl friends. Here they all sing many special songs, until the bridegroom arrives. But he is not let in, and he has to buy his way; and when he at last comes in the room he finds his bride between two brothers or male relatives, and he has to buy her out again.

The characteristic feature of a Ruthenian wedding is the so-called "korowaj." This is a large loaf prepared and baked under the auspices of relatives and friends invited for the purpose, and who sing special songs while the baking is in progress. The loaf is adorned with ornaments made of pastry. Then a little tree is erected in the middle of this and a wax candle fastened to it. Besides this "korowaj," smaller loaves of the same shape are made. After the wedding ceremony the "korowaj" is carried to the house of the bridegroom by the best man, who in delivering it makes a speech to the young couple.

THE EASTER FESTIVITIES

As a rule, all these peoples do not eat meat during Lent. Among the Ruthenians the different dishes prepared for the Easter feast are carried at daybreak to the square in front of the church in order to have them blessed by the village priest. Several special customs are observed during the feast itself. Thus, before the meal starts the head of the family takes up the large white loaf, called "paska," which has been specially baked for the occasion, and after having made with the knife the sign of the cross upon it, cuts several small pieces, which he distributes among those present. These pieces are immediately eaten, care being taken not to drop any crumbs on the floor, for this is considered a great sin.

Among the Hungarians and the Slavonic people Easter is the sprinkling season. Young men and women sprinkle each other with water—among the rich classes the women are sprinkled with perfume—and exchange colored eggs, that is, eggs that have the shells elaborately and sometimes very artistically colored.

Another Easter custom prevailing among the Hungarians takes place the day before Easter Sunday. A great number of people assemble in the market square, and there they elect a number of officials to carry out the Easter ceremonies.

After this prayers are offered that the crops may be preserved from locusts, droughts, and other pests and calamities.

RUINS OF THE TEMPLE OF THE OLYMPIAN ZEUS

This is all that is left of what was once one of the seven wonders of the world. Notice how the column in the foreground has fallen showing the eighteen pieces of which it is constructed.

THE GLORY OF ANCIENT GREECE

THE most eastern of the three peninsulas jutting down into the Mediterranean from Europe is Greece. It is irregular in shape and is bounded on the north by Dalmatia and the Balkan States. It is practically separated into two portions by the gulf of Corinth and is connected by a narrow isthmus, which is actually cut by a sea-level canal. The country is very small and lies open to the enticing sea. This very smallness, however, proved a most potent stimulus to the development of mind and body, because the state required for her protection intelligence combined with the utmost physical strength and agility. Hence arose the great interest in athletics.

The promising winners in local contests were sent to the great national games, the most famous of which were the Olympic; and the simple olive wreath that rewarded the victor brought glory to his family and state. Long after Greece had become part of the Roman empire a wealthy Athenian built for his city a magnificent marble stadium. It fell to ruins, as did Athens and the empire.

We read in history with what gallantry and determination the Greeks defended their northern mountain walls during the world-struggle between the East and West in the fifth century before Christ. We know, too, at that time how open to attack were the sea-washed coasts, and how invaluable were the fine harbors, such as Salamis. But before turning to those thrilling times, let us wander back through the centuries to catch a few glimpses of the earlier state of the country. We want to see the beginnings of the race.

A poor, blind old man, we are told, though some would have it that he never existed, wandered round the coasts of the Ægean Sea, some three or four hundred years before the time when the whole land was in a turmoil, fitting out ships and gathering soldiers to resist the Persians. This old man, Homer, like other minstrels before him, sang or recited, as he went, the grandest songs of adventure and fighting that the world has ever heard. Homer nearly 3000 years ago was handing down, as he sang, the history, clothed in a poetic dress, of

times perhaps three or four centuries earlier than his own.

In museums we can see manuscripts, 2000 years old, of the two great poems —the "Iliad," or the taking of Ilium, or Troy, and the "Odyssey," which tells of the wonderful wanderings of the great hero, Odysseus.

Once people thought that everything in the "Iliad" and "Odyssey" was fairy-tale, because there is so much in them that can be nothing but beautiful make-believe. The spade of the explorer, however, has shown, within the last fifty years, how much truth and history lie hidden in Homer's songs. We know now that brilliant memories of times gone by are enshrined in the legends.

THE PALACES OF THE GREEK HEROES THAT WERE HIDDEN FOR CENTURIES

In the northwest corner of Asia Minor, near the Hellespont, scholars believe they have found the ruins of Troy, or Ilium, itself, and in Mycenæ, in the Peloponnesus, they have unearthed a palace with golden treasure, like the home of Agamemnon, the leader of the Achæans who fought against Troy. Grand indeed is it to have actual touch with those far-off stirring times, and most deeply interesting are the remains to be seen in museums of pictures cut in roller seals or painted on plaster, as well as wonderful treasures of gold, such as ornaments and cups.

How long this civilization had lasted is not yet known, but on many Mediterranean sites have been found widespread traces of it. In the beautiful island of Crete, for instance, stood a marvelous palace, three stories high, as large as a town, belonging to times still earlier than those of Mycene and Troy. The story of its exploration is one of the most entrancing ever told, especially as it unravels one of the wonderful old Greek stories, that of the monster Minotaur, and the labyrinth, or palace with winding passages, in which he lived.

THE MEN WHO SETTLED ON A STRIP OF LAND AND BECAME DARING SAILORS

It was during the years when this old civilization was flourishing round the Ægean Sea that many families of people were migrating westwards from their homes on the lower basin of the Euphrates, where life was so full and busy and there was constant need for more room. One of these families, known as the Phœnicians, settled, as Abraham of the same race had done long before, in Syria, the country between Asia Minor and Egypt. These Phœnicians occupied a narrow strip of land, about 200 miles long by about 20 broad, between the sea and the mountains of Syria, where grew the famous cedars of Lebanon. Energetic and clever people they were, and they became daring sailors and most successful traders. Placed midway between the East and West, they became the merchant carriers of the known world; the productions of the old empires on the Nile and the Euphrates passed through their hands, and were taken in their little ships, wherever they could find a market.

Farther and farther afield they pushed their way, building forts to protect their trade, much as the Dutch, French, and British did thousands of years later. They were miners and metal-workers, too, and it was chiefly in the quest for silver that they passed the Pillars of Hercules and founded Gades, or Cadiz, facing the broad Atlantic. It was the rumor that tin was to be found in England that led them to pass the Bay of Biscay and land in Cornwall.

HOW THE PHŒNICIANS BECAME THE MERCHANTS OF THE WORLD

These people are mentioned in the "Iliad" as famous workers in metal:

A leading feature of Greek life was the great Olympic festival, held every fourth year at Olympia, at which athletes and musicians and poets and artists were present from all parts of Greece and contended for the simple prizes, that took the form of olive crowns. In this picture we see a victorious poet being carried in triumph.

Here we see the end of one of the great foot races at Olympia. These Olympic games were no mere idle sport. They were dedicated to Jupiter, and represented all that the Greeks held to be most worthy in human life. They were a part of the religion of Greece, and the sternest means were taken to prevent anything like cheating.

So sacred were the Olympic games considered by all the different Greek states, that if they were at war, the fighting was suspended during the period of the festival, and only resumed after the competitors had returned to their homes. Of all the Greek states none encouraged athletics more than Sparta, whose male citizens were rigorously trained by the State from the age of seven. Here we see the famous Spartan gymnasium.

in the "Odyssey," they are spoken of chiefly as daring sailors and pirates.

They saw the advantages of Malta, and Cyprus, the copper island for harbors and footholds, but their chief colony, which flourished exceedingly after the great days of Phœnicia had gone by, was Carthage, on the north coast of Africa, nearest to Sicily. So strong and rich did this colony become that it founded other colonies, such as New Carthage, in Spain, and contested long and nobly with the Greeks and Romans in later days.

And all the time that the Phœnicians were facing the waves in storm and sunshine, buying and selling everywhere, from the very old Greek cities and from Britain, and founding colonies, they were also making great wealth from a beautiful purple dye obtained from a little shell-fish gathered on their shores. It is astonishing indeed how much life and work had its home on that narrow strip of shore, especially around the two great cities Sidon and Tyre, both of which had afterwards such tragic histories. The name Tyre brings to mind its king, Hiram, who helped David and his son Solomon so much in the building of the great Temple at Jerusalem, sending them cedar and bronze and cunning workmen, as we read in the Bible.

While the Phœnicians were thus at the height of their power, great numbers of people had been coming on from the east, round the Black Sea, pushing forward and southward the tribes in front of them. And so it happened that, some years after the fall of Troy, an uprising of the states round the northwest of the Ægean Sea took place on the arrival of new tribes seeking new homes.

In the years of fighting and trouble which followed, the old high civilization was lost, and when at last things settled down, we find Greece—or Hellas, as the people themselves called it—cut up into small states, mostly shut in by surrounding mountains, but open to the sea.

THE QUARRELS THAT PREVENTED THE GREEKS BUILDING A GREAT EMPIRE

All were fiercely independent, and though the Hellenes were all of the same race, they were very different in nature. We know but little of the long struggles the newcomers had with the old inhabitants, the very early Greeks, or of the difficulties that arose as they mingled with them, and overflowed to the islands of the Ægean and the coasts of Asia Minor beyond.

The three chief tribes of the Hellenes were the Ionians, the Dorians, and the Æolians. All through the history of the rise and fall of Hellas, or Greece, these people never united under one ruler. Incessant and bitter to the very end were the quarrels and jealousies among all the states founded by them.

The chief Ionian state was Athens, with the country round called Attica. that little peninsula, northeast of Corinth. The Ionians soon spread out over the middle islands of the Ægean Sea to Asia Minor, where they founded the cities afterwards so famous as Smyrna and Ephesus. In the Peloponnesus was Sparta, the chief Dorian state; and it also soon formed settlements, chiefly in Crete, Rhodes, and Cyprus. To the west of Attica lay Bœotia, with its capital, Thebes, settled eventually by the Æolian family, neither so clever as the Ionians nor so brilliant in war as the Dorians, but more steady and persevering than either. They expanded to the north of the Ionians.

THE FALL OF TYRE AND THE RISE OF GREECE AS A SEA-POWER

The early settlement of the states is a long and intricate story, with many changes of government, and much

fighting among themselves. Still, shut off in the peninsula by their triple rampart of mountains to the north, they had some centuries free from foreign invasion in which to develop according to their natures and the opportunities of their country.

MEDIAEVAL FORTIFICATIONS AT CORINTH
These fortifications date from the 15th century when Venice held sway throughout the Mediterranean.

The brilliant period of Phœnicia did not last many centuries. Nebuchadnezzar took Tyre in the sixth century before Christ, and the Persians annexed the whole district soon after, glad enough to get the use of the great fleets of ships for their wars and commerce.

As the sea-power of the Phœnicians went down, that of the Greeks rose, till they, in their turn, became masters of the Mediterranean, trading and exploring everywhere and founding colonies on a grand scale. Besides those to the east were the important ones in the south of Italy and Sicily which came in time to be called Greater Hellas or Greece. From the colony at Marseilles, then called Massilia, three centuries before Julius Cæsar crossed the English Channel, sailed the ardent old sailor and geographer, Pytheas to the distant island of Britain. We know how much Egypt was influenced in its later times by Greek trade and Greek learning, when at last the persevering merchants had managed to gain a footing in that China of the Mediterranean.

THE IRON LAWS OF SPARTA THAT TREATED MEN AS IF THEY WERE MACHINES

It was in the same century that Homer is believed to have lived that the famous laws of Sparta were settled by Lycurgus. These iron laws arranged the lives of Spartans from birth to death as if they were parts of a machine. Baby boys were not allowed to live at all if they were not strong, and those who passed the judges were taken from their mothers when seven years old to be brought up by the State, so as to turn out fine soldiers. They lived in barracks in the hardest and simplest way possible, and were made to endure hunger, fatigue, and even thrashing. To this day we say of anyone who endures discomfort and suffering without complaining that he is a Spartan, and a proverb we often use, "Hunger is the best sauce," comes down to us from a Spartan cook who was speaking of the horrid black broth these boys had to take.

We have read in the story of the pass of Thermopylæ, several hundred years after Lycurgus framed his laws, what sort of soldiers this military training turned out.

The Ionian Athenians developed on very different lines. They had many

difficulties and troubles to endure before their laws and arrangements settled down into one of the most perfect systems of government by the people, ever known. Their great reforming law-giver was Solon, one of the wise men of Greece, who lived about one hundred years before the Persian wars begun. About this time, too, the great fable-writer, Æsop, is said to have lived.

The influence which Greece has exercised upon the world in art, literature and philosophy is all the more marked when we consider her insignificance and comparatively small area.

Happily, we possess a great wealth of illustration to show us what manner of men these Greeks were, especially the Athenians. Many of their thoughtful writings, histories, plays, poems, and speeches have been handed down through the centuries by scholars who have loved and studied them.

The sculpture which has been found in recent years in excavating, has never been equaled since the time when it was made. And we are equally indebted to the Greeks in the matter of architecture. Actual survey of such buildings as the Parthenon, show that the Greeks knew and practiced a great many tricks to make the aspect of a building more pleasant—tricks of which we have been not only ignorant up to date but which we are just beginning to learn from actual observation of these ancient buildings.

THE PICTURES ON THE VASES THAT SHOW US THE LIFE OF THE OLD GREEKS

From the earliest days the Greeks made fine pottery, and ornamented it with designs and pictures. The early stiff work of the eighth and seventh centuries before Christ gave way to the interesting subjects chosen by the artists of the sixth and fifth centuries.

First and foremost, we must notice the graceful and varied shapes of the vases, according to the use for which they were designed. Often the potter-artist signs his name on the vase, as well as the picture-artist. The subjects chosen for these are chiefly scenes from the old stories in which the religion and history of the country are so entwined, and scenes from daily life, especially in the fifth and fourth centuries before Christ, when vase-painting rose to its greatest perfection. After these times it declined.

Helped by the beauty of the clear skies, wooded hills, and dancing streams of Greece, the bright imaginations of its old inhabitants put life into everything around them. The dancing waves became merry maidens—even we talk of the foam as white horses—fairies and nymphs dwelt in every shady wood and in the sparkling water.

The religion of the Greeks was colored very highly by their fancy and they introduced nymphs and spirits to impersonate in a great many of the elements and phases of nature. Although their religion fell short in its moral code it is ideally so beautiful that Grecian Mythology is taught extensively in our modern schools.

LITTLE PICTURES OF BOYS AND GIRLS OF LONG AGO

Those illustrating daily life are equally delightful. The babies playing with carts and make-believe meals might be seen in any nursery today, and the little girls at their dancing lessons, the boys with more serious work, seem just as real to us as to the artists who drew them.

On other vases we can see how the potter made his pots; how the girls spun the soft hanging material of which they made their simple garments; how they gossiped together as girls do now, while bringing water from the well.

THE PARTHENON
This building is supposed to be the most perfect piece of architecture ever constructed

The glory of ancient Athens, once the finest city in the world, is represented today by a pile of noble ruins, and in this view we see the famous Acropolis, the hill on which many temples stood.

There are many entertainment scenes, where the guests are reclining on couches.

The beautiful pictures of ships recall the blue Mediterranean and the naval glory of Greece; and the scene of olive-gatherers reminds us of the numbers of olive trees round Athens, which gave the valuable oil so much sought after.

Some of the larger vases were prizes for sports and games, won long ago and buried with the proud winner when he died. Often, however, the prize in the games was simply a wreath of leaves; At Athens the prize was one of the vases with some of the precious olive oil in it.

How Athens rose in glory from the ashes of desolation

And this leads us to the city of Athens, and its hill called the Acropolis, where the Persians destroyed the sacred buildings and slew the few hundred people who stayed behind when the rest fled to the ships. There is a blackened layer to be seen today when digging is done to a certain depth on the Acropolis—the relics of the ruin wrought by the Persians.

Soon after this war was ended, the Athenians, helped by three of their great men, Pericles the ruler, Ictinos architect, and Phidias the sculptor, set to work with extraordinary energy to restore the mischief done by the enemy. Acropolis comes from two Greek words meaning "upper city" and the rock itself was originally used as a place of security against attacks from the outside. Later, however, when Athens grew in size, it came to be used merely for the temples dedicated to the various deities. The principal one of these was the Parthenon. This building for 1000 years remained a temple of the goddess Athena Parthenos, and that is how it received the name of the Parthenon. For another 1000 years it was used as a Christian church, and then as a Turkish mosque. Now it is one of the grandest ruins of the world, and the sculptures are studied by all who wish to understand the most beautiful ways of expressing the human form. As we gaze in wonder and admiration at the glorious figures of the gods and goddesses, we reflect what models Phidias must have had before his eyes.

The treasures of ancient Greece that we can see today

The various details of the frieze which runs round the outside of the temple give a glowing picture of the grand procession in which all Athens took part in the centuries of its greatness. The winners of vases were there, as well as the gentle, modest maidens who had embroidered a beautiful robe for the goddess. There were, also, the splendid prancing horses, the musicians the bearers of offerings, and the gentle animals for sacrifice.

There were three statues of Athena on the Acropolis—a little old wooden one, supposed to have fallen from heaven; an enormous bronze one, seventy feet high, that the sailors could see and salute at sea, five miles off; and a gorgeous gold and ivory one, forty feet high, in the Parthenon. Then there was the equally large statue of Athena's father, Zeus, in the temple at Olympia in the Peloponnesus. It was at Olympia that the great national games were held, the prizes in which were so eagerly competed for. The work on the gems and the jewelry of the most notable period is so wonderful that its beauty is seen fully only by the aid of a magnifying glass.

Meeting the Persian hosts

There is the story of the gallant little town of Platæa, which sent its whole army of 1000 men to face, with Athens, the hosts of the Persians, while other states were sending all sorts of excuses for non-appearance.

Sparta could not leave the yearly games. This action of the Platæans has always been looked upon as one of the most heroic in Greek history, for what hope could they have had of winning?

While Xerxes was getting ready for the third invasion of Greece, there were busy times in the ports of Athens. Themistocles, one of the great men of the period, was doing his best to make Athens a great naval state by building ships with all the money that could be raised. How useful these ships were after Thermopylæ was forced and Athens burned. They saved Greece at Salamis, defeating the great and powerful Persian fleet in the narrow waters before the eyes of Xerxes.

How the Great Army of Xerxes was Driven Out of Greece

It is said that on the very same day that the battle of Salamis was fought, the Greeks who had settled in Sicily totally defeated the Phœnicians of Carthage, who had landed in their country. There were two other battles, both on the same day, in the following year. They were the momentous battle of Platæa, when Greece gathered the largest force she had ever mustered to meet the picked men of the Persian army that Xerxes had left behind, and, second, the sea-fight across the Ægean at Mycale, between Ephesus and Miletus. Both resulted in victories for the Greeks; Xerxes troubled them no more.

If only the states could have united into one nation at this time, they would have had a great future. By defeating and driving away the forces of the mighty Persian Empire they had raised themselves from a collection of little states, with an independence depending on their position, to a place in the world as brave freemen, among nations who were the slaves of despots. But union was never farther off.

The Spartans and Athenians remained sworn enemies, first one and then another gaining the lead. In the middle of the fifth century, when Pericles was rebuilding Athens and Herodotus was traveling and writing, Athens raised its power to a great height, but in so doing made bitter enemies of Sparta and Bœotia, and when these attacked her, little by little her possessions melted away. With her loss of power all hope of Greek unity was gone. Many were the battles and sieges, revolts and truces, in those days.

The Quarrels of the Greek States and the Downfall of Athens

While Athens was on the downgrade a great expedition was planned to retrieve her fortunes in Sicily, where Dorian settlers had grown very rich in Syracuse. But it failed utterly, and left Athens weaker than ever, with her best sailors and soldiers sacrificed in the ruin that fell upon her. After a few years she revived, and war with the Spartans now raged round the Hellespont. This time the Athenians were successful, and Byzantium passed to them from the Spartans; but the end of the war between the rivals was brought about by the capture of Athens.

It was now that the expedition of the 10,000 Greeks made its adventurous way into the heart of Persia, and then back by way of the Black Sea. When their leader, Xenophon, reached Athens, he was deeply grieved to find that his friend and teacher, the great and wise Socrates, had been condemned to death. Socrates loved searching after truth, and had a masterly way of cross-questioning his hearers that brought home to them their ignorance. His pupil, Plato, was an equally noble man, whose teaching will never die.

Just below the Acropolis was the large open-air theater where the prize

plays of the great writers of Greece were performed to enraptured and critical audiences during the centuries so torn with wars and jealousies.

THE DANGER THAT THREATENED THE GREEK STATES FROM THE NORTH

The Spartans who had a turn of the chief power for awhile, were greatly hated for their selfishness and hardness, and the time came when they, too, lost their fine position and their navy; and then Thebes had some continued successes under their leader, Epaminondas. When he died it was not the long-dreaded Persians who were now to be feared as possible conquerors of the disunited states of Greece. The danger came from an unexpected quarter, from Macedonia, on the northern and western shores of the Ægean Sea.

The Macedonians were in race a mixture of the Greeks and the less civilized tribes whom they called barbarians. They had long had their own kings, but little heed was paid to them by their southern neighbors. It was when a very clever and ambitious king, Philip, came to the Macedonian throne that danger began to threaten.

He drilled and improved his army, annexed the barbarian countries around him, and, by playing his game with wonderful craft and skill, he took advantage of the weakness of the Athenians, Spartans, and Bœotians, and won the great aim of his life, the headship of the Greek states.

Demosthenes, the great orator, who saw through his plans and wiles, was his chief enemy. In the assembly at Athens he thundered forth again and again in stirring speeches that have come down to us, trying to persuade his countrymen to change their ways before it was too late.

THE DARK DAY WHEN THE FREEDOM OF GREECE PASSED AWAY FOREVER

In the final battle of Chæronea, Demosthenes, the orator at forty-seven years of age, was fighting in the Athenian ranks. Imagine his feelings on the evening of that awful day. The Athenians lost 1000 men on the field, and 2000 were prisoners in Philip's hands. The flower of the Theban army died to a man where it stood. The freedom of Greece was gone, and the outward glory of Athens was laid in the dust. Great as Philip was, for he had raised Macedonia from being a small, half-barbarous state to the headship of Greece, he had a still greater son, Alexander, whose extraordinary career of conquest we read in the story of Persia.

Demosthenes proposed and carried a vote of thanksgiving when the news came of Philip's death. But Alexander crushed all hopes of freedom in Greece, and quickly showed his wonderful military genius in a campaign in Thrace. And then he set out on larger expeditions, till all the known parts of Asia and Africa were his, and he only longed for more worlds to conquer.

After his early death there was long fighting and confusion as to who should succeed to the great empire that he had built by conquest, and at length three separate kingdoms arose on its ruins. Macedonia with Greece fell to Antigonus.

HOW "CAPTIVE GREECE LED CAPTIVE HER PROUD CONQUEROR"

About a hundred years later, 168 years before Christ, Macedonia was made a Roman province. Twenty years after that, Corinth, the busy trading Panama of Greece, was taken and Greece itself was made subject to Rome. But as one of the Roman poets has said, "Captive Greece led captive her proud conqueror."

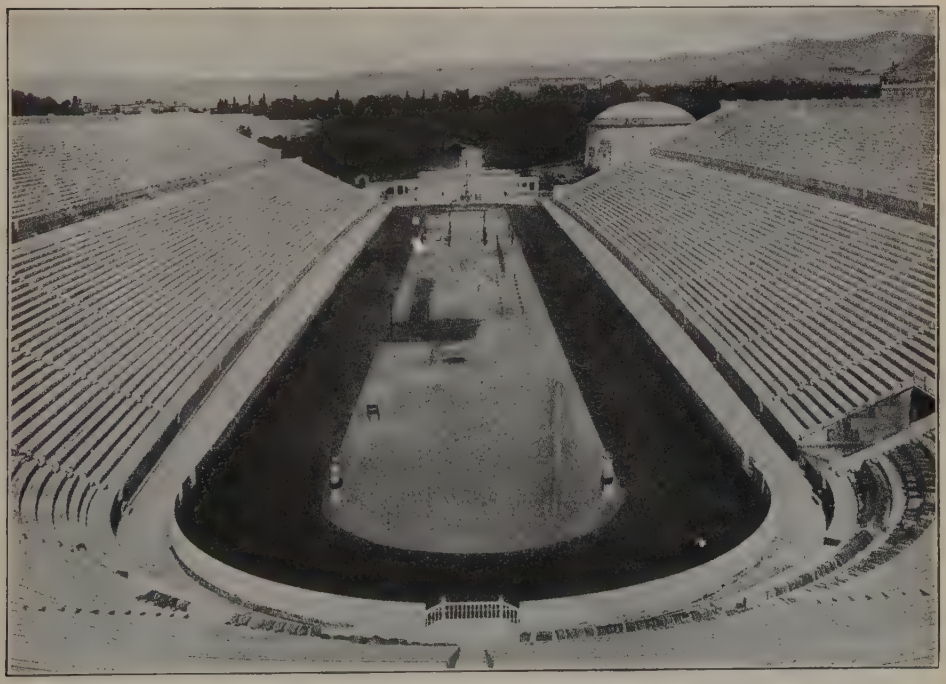
Rome had for years been learning from the art and literature of Greece, and when the conquest came, celebrated by long triumphant processions in Rome, instead of the usual train of

vanquished kings and queens, strange beasts, and a great show of barbaric splendor, there passed before the Roman people the grand, silent forms in marble and bronze, the beautiful art treasures of Greece, torn from shrines and temples to adorn Roman cities, and to serve as models to the whole world.

Alexander had done his share in showing Greece to Asia, but it was chiefly by means of the Roman arms that the knowledge of Greek art and Greek learning was carried beyond the narrow borders of the little peninsula. In fact, Greece then became a "country without borders," and her wonderful influence and power are felt in a hundred ways all over the world today.

It is said of modern Greeks that in coming to the United States they do not like to forswear allegiance to their own country and whenever they are able to return with a competency they do so.

They are proud of the wonderful history of their homeland and ever look back to it even as the Chinese do to the times of Confucius. Well they may; for the little country of Greece has taught the world many important and beautiful things which it otherwise would possibly not have known for centuries to come.



THE STADIUM AT ATHENS

Every city of Greece had a stadium, as nearly all festivals included athletic competition. The winners of the local contests were sent to the national games—the most famous of which were the Olympic.

The stadium shown in this picture is a modern structure built in imitation of those of ancient times.

The Kremlin of Moscow, the citadel wherein are the royal edifices and churches, and the former residence of the Emperor.

In the Kitaigorod, one of the old walled divisions of the city of Moscow still remaining.

THE BROAD LAND OF RUSSIA

MORE than half of Europe, added to more than one-third of Asia, or about one-sixth part of all the land of the world—such is the size of the dominions of all the Russias today!

This vast Eurasian empire has grown through the centuries from some small inland states about the Dnieper and Volga rivers, till it reached the White Sea, the Baltic Sea, and the Black Sea, and across thousands of miles to the Pacific. Let us try to gain some idea of what there is to see in these 8,500,000 square miles of the earth's surface, in the country and in the towns; also, where and how the 150,000,000 people live and work.

First, we gather that there are vast districts in Russia—as in the north of Canada and the middle of Australia—unsuitable for people to live in. Round the shores of the frozen sea, and on the tundras, or dreary plains, where the winter is dark and long, and the summer is short and hot, very few people live. These few people wander about with herds of reindeer, as in the north of Scandinavia; or they fish, or hunt bears and foxes for their furs, and use sledges, drawn by teams of dogs, to travel over the ice and snow. South of the tundras are miles and miles of forests, spreading darkly farther than the eye can see. For the most part, these are silent, like the icy plains, though, where transport is possible, men gather to cut down and despatch the timber, which is one of the chief products Russia has to sell.

Then, again, to the south there is a belt of land with very few people living upon it—a belt stretching from the north of the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea to the Sea of Aral, and onwards to the heights of Central Asia. Some of this land is bare save for grass, and there herds of cattle roam far and wide; some is desert and rocky, scorching hot and dry in summer, and cold, with winds cutting like a razor, in winter.

So where shall we look for the subjects of the late Czar? The vast majority of them are the peasants, who were serfs, or slaves, only fifty years ago, and other tillers of the soil,

scattered over countless fields growing corn and other crops, where the earth is black and rich, and watered by many rivers. The peasants, for the most part, lead dull, sad lives, and are terribly poor. Sometimes famines cause desperate starvation in the land that produces and sells to other countries great quantities of grain. The intense cold, too, also brings much suffering to the poor, for over much of Russia, except on the Black Sea Riviera, snow and ice last for months. Some go into the towns to work when nothing can be done in the fields; but, in most cases, the poor creatures paste up every cranny that lets in air to their wretched hovels, light a stove, which is kept going, if possible, night and day, and resign themselves to a wretched existence, often stupefied with a strong spirit called vodka.

There are, too, many thousands of miners in Russia. These we shall find about the Ural Mountains—there is an obelisk on one of these with Europe engraved on one side, and Asia on the other—and the Altai, or Gold Mountains, in Siberia, on the borders of China, and on the various coal-fields, chiefly round the important town of Moscow.

THE UNTOLD WEALTH THAT LIES BURIED UNDERGROUND IN RUSSIA

The mineral wealth of Russia is untold, and is not yet half worked; neither does it go to enrich the country nor to help pay for the costly reforms which are so urgently needed. There are iron, copper, gold, and silver among valuable metals; every variety of precious stones, marbles, and agates; and thousands of beings toil year after year, wresting these minerals from their dark hiding-places in Mother Earth's rich stores. Those who have broken the laws, and, alas! sometimes those who are only suspected of breaking them, are sent—as British convicts used to be sent to Australia—to Siberia to work in the mines.

PEASANT COSTUME, RUSSIA

The peasant costumes of Russia are very varied, and many are really beautiful. Bright colors, such as red, orange and blue, with white and black, frequently enter into the color scheme. Although Russia is not quite a land of flowers, the latter are much used for the decoration of the head-dresses worn.

It is an easy journey from England to Russia, either by land or sea. One of the chief routes by land is via Berlin and Warsaw, taking about three days. If we choose to go by sea, it will take a little longer, even if we shorten it by going through the Kiel Canal, instead of round Denmark to the Baltic then up the Gulf of Finland, past Kronstadt, the great arsenal and sentinel of the Neva, to the city of Peter the Great, former capital of the empire, built on the islands and shores of the Neva, as it winds into the Gulf of Finland.

If we mount the dome of St. Isaac's Cathedral, near the center of Petro-

grad, and look down on the mass of glittering water in the canals and arms of the Neva, the city seems as if almost floating upon it. The edges are lined with fine quays and docks; and barges and steamers and boats of all kinds ply busily about in every direction, for St. Petersburg or Petrograd, to which latter its name was changed during the European war in 1914, is connected by water with the distant Black, White, and Caspian seas. But if our visit is in winter, a very different scene meets our eyes. All is frozen—the Gulf of Finland, the rivers, the canals, and the lakes.

THE SLEIGHS WITH THE TINKLING BELLS THAT RUSH OVER THE FROZEN LAKES

The ice is strong enough to bear carriages of every description; and rich folk, wrapped up to the eyes in costly furs, glide swiftly along in sleighs, sometimes with three horses abreast, tinkling their bells, over the ice and snow, to enjoy all the balls and theaters and parties of the gay winter season. French is much spoken by the upper classes in Russia, as other Europeans find it very difficult to learn to speak the Russian language. Between St. Isaac's and the Neva is the statue of the founder of the city, with the English quay on one side and the Admiralty buildings on the other. From the Admiralty the three chief streets, or prospects, radiate in straight lines. The Nevski Prospect, like the Unter den Linden of Berlin, is one of the finest streets in Europe. The Kazan Cathedral is in it; and at its end is one of the most celebrated monasteries in Russia—that of St. Alexander Nevski.

THE WONDERFUL CHURCHES OF RUSSIA, COVERED WITH GOLD AND JEWELS

It is difficult for us, who are used to plainer houses of worship, to realize the exceeding richness of the decorations in Russian cathedrals and churches. Not only are they adorned with marbles, agates, jasper, green malachite, blue lapis lazuli, and fine work in gold and silver, but there are many sacred pictures, often set with diamonds and other precious stones, and beautiful embroidered hangings, and many other works of art. The services held in these magnificent churches are very grand and solemn.

Next to the Admiralty is the famous Winter Palace, joined to the Hermitage, built by Catherine the Great, and beyond that is the Summer Garden and Palace. In these palaces were stored treasures of pictures, painted by the greatest artists of the world, and also most valuable and interesting collections which illustrate every part of Russian history. The Crown jewels of Russia were kept in the Winter Palace, and form a most gorgeous display; enormous diamonds, and rare rubies and sapphires blazing from crowns and necklaces and scepters.

The Royal Library, in the Hermitage, contains more than a million books, besides an important collection of manuscripts. Among them are letters from Mary Stuart, Henry VIII, Elizabeth, and Charles I; and there is a writing exercise of Louis XIV in French, "Homage is the right of kings; they do what pleases them." No wonder the boy grew up to declare proudly, "I am the State."

THE SIMPLE COTTAGE OF RUSSIA'S GREATEST RULER

Just opposite these palaces, across the Neva, is the fortress and cathedral of St. Peter and St. Paul, where all, save one, of the sovereigns of Russia, since the foundation of Petrograd, have been buried. Peter's boat, "the grandfather of the Russian Navy," in which he sailed about and gained much practical skill, is housed near the cathedral. Close by is the interesting cottage where "the giant wonder

PETER THE GREAT SHEARING HIS FLOCK

After Peter the Great returned to Russia from his trip through Europe in 1698, he compelled the people to abandon their ancient modes of dress. He stationed his soldiers at every gate in Moscow with a royal order by which every man's coat, if too long, was cut short; and if his beard exceeded a certain allowance was scissored off with equal arbitrariness.

worker," as Peter was called, lived on the banks of the river while superintending the building of his city. Two rooms and a kitchen were all he required.

In the Artillery Museum is Peter's carriage with which he measured roads, the number of revolutions made by the wheels being registered by the machinery in the box behind—a sort of taxi-cab. On the lid of the box is a picture of Peter traveling, with forests in front of him, and newly built houses and newly laid-out gardens behind him.

There are many manufactories round Petrograd, which also had a large trade, chiefly in produce—timber, tar, hemp, sugar, and beetroot—before the war and the revolution. Alongside the quays, now largely deserted, many German and English used to anchor.

MOSCOW, THE CITY OF GILDED SPIRES AND PAINTED DOMES

We could spend months in Petrograd and not come to the end of all the treasures to be seen in it—treasures from which we can learn much of the story of Russia and its peoples without opening a book; but the whole country lies behind it, and we must hasten on to Moscow, the present capital, 400 miles southeast of Petrograd. Moscow is now the center of the railway system of Russia, though the old water routes which connect it with distant parts are still much used.

Over a million people live in both Petrograd and Moscow. The older city is the center of a great cotton trade, and there is a large coalfield in the neighborhood.

South of the city, where the Moskva river makes a great loop, are the Sparrow Hills. It was from here that Napoleon, surrounded by his staff, surveyed the glittering city at his feet. Thousands of housetops, and trees, and the winding river lie before us, but above all stand out the gilded and colored domes of the cathedrals and churches and the grim walls of the numerous monasteries. We have already glanced at the history of this bustling and busy city, and now we must visit the Kremlin, which is the ancient name for a fortress. The Kremlin itself consists of a mass of buildings on the higher bank of the Moskva River, shut in by a wall, with towers and gates. It is, to Russians, one of the most sacred spots, for here are the Synod buildings, where the Council of the Russian Church meets in solemn state. Here are the ancient garments, some richly embroidered with pearls and precious stones, and the jeweled mitres worn by the patriarchs of the Eastern Church. Here, too, in the Cathedral of the Annunciation, the czars have been baptized and married, and in the Cathedral of the Assumption all the czars from Ivan the Terrible have been crowned; in the Cathedral of the Archangel Michael, the old czars were buried.

Many and greatly revered are the relics and sacred pictures called ikons and treasures of jewels and gold and silver, to be found in the various buildings of the Kremlin. In the Tower of Ivan the Great are the famous bells which are rung on Easter Eve with such wonderful effect. The enormous "King of Bells," which is 19 feet high and weighs 198 tons, stands at the foot of the tower, with a piece knocked out of its side weighing eleven tons.

THE WEB OF STREETS THAT HAS BEEN SPUN AROUND THE SACRED KREMLIN

All round the Kremlin lie streets arranged like a spider's web, and there are many rich monasteries and great churches and fine houses, and beyond are the factories of all kinds and the hovels of the workers.

It is easy now to pass by train to Kief on the Dnieper, the mother of

Russian towns, and indeed, one of the most ancient towns in Europe. It has many fine old cathedrals, and also important trade and manufactures.

Its companion, Novgorod the Great, near Lake Ilmen, called the cradle of the Russian Empire, bears many marks of its ancient and important history, dating from the times of the Scandinavian Rurik. Here, in 1862, a monument was erected to commemorate the 1000th birthday of the Russian Empire.

Nijni, or Lower, Novgorod, on the Volga, is also a place of much interest, chiefly on account of the great fair which is held there every summer.

It is said that the value of the goods brought to the fair for sale amounts to about $120,000,000; shops and bazars, and all sorts of buildings cover a large space of ground, and the wares set out in them come from every part of the empire and beyond. There are iron goods from Tula, near Moscow; silks from Persia; precious stones and furs from Siberia and Central Asia; tea from China; rich carpets, dried fruits, cotton goods, silver ornaments, and all sorts of wooden boxes and toys made by the peasants.

How east meets west in the city of the great fair

The wharves of Nijni Novgorod, where most of this merchandise is unloaded by sturdy Tartar laborers, are quite ten miles in length; and the various types of people seen selling, buying, and looking on, show that here Europe and Asia meet and trade.

Steamers ply regularly on the great rivers, such as the Volga, now a peaceful highway of commerce with numbers of towns on its banks, and united with the distant seas by its tributaries and connecting canals. Its course approaches to within forty miles of the Don. Many are the stories of fierce warfare and pirates connected with the great rivers of South Russia in the past. Astrakhan is the port near its delta in the Caspian Sea, the headquarters of the large fishing industry carried on in that inland sea.

Odessa, on the Black Sea, is the great port of the South for sending away the corn grown in the fertile parts of Little Russia. Wool is exported from the steppes round the Black Sea, and there are many engineering and shipbuilding works in the neighborhood of this thriving city.

A mighty mountain and a splendid road above the clouds

Railways now run down from Moscow and other parts of Russia to the Caspian Sea, skirting the eastern edge of the Caucasus Mountains, which form such a high barrier between North and South. The highest peak, Mount Elbruz, tops Mont Blanc by about 3000 feet. There is a splendid military road over the Dariel Pass, rising at parts into the clouds, with scenery like that of Switzerland. White peaks against the blue sky, dashing torrents, glaciers and avalanches, all seem especially beautiful after the bare steppes and rocky deserts that are found not far off. Baku, on the Caspian Sea, famous for its rich mineral oil wells is connected by the line that runs through Tiflis with the port of Batoum on the Black Sea.

Rivers of oil that run through pipes six hundred miles long

There are special boats and trains to convey this never-failing oil from the wells whence it springs, but, in addition, pipes are now laid, through which pour daily over a million gallons of oil, straight to the tank-boats and reservoirs at Batoum about 600 miles away.

The rail now pushes on beyond the Caspian Sea, and links together the fertile oases which lie like green islands in a sea of sand, watered by rivers

which afterwards lose themselves in the surrounding dry and rocky soil. In these oases, rice, wheat and fruits are grown. Here, in Russian Turkestan, most of the people are Mohammedans, and numbers lead a wandering life, keeping camels, cattle, sheep and horses wherever sufficient pasture can be found on the dry and barren steppe lands.

But the greatest achievement in linking together the far distant parts of the great country by means of the iron rails is the Siberian Railway, from Moscow right across Asia to the Sea of Japan, an arm of the Pacific Ocean.

This railway reminds us, in some ways, of those that run across America. It is longer, and much of the scenery is dreary and flat, and often it runs through endless forests. It crosses over the Ural Mountains near Ufa, a district famed for iron mines and foundries, as well as for its riches in gold and precious stones.

THE LONGEST AND MOST MARVELOUS RAILWAY IN THE WORLD

There are no tunnels, and there is none of the exciting, hair-breadth travel that the great lines of the Northwest furnish among the Rocky Mountains. In winter it is so cold on the Siberian line that meat, butter and fish need no refrigerating cars. The water for the engines has to be brought hot, or it would freeze on the way.

A great feature of this line is the number of bridges needed. One that crosses the Volga near Samara is nearly a mile long, and many more are passed on the way through West and East Siberia, crossing over the immense rivers that drain so slowly and quietly across Siberia from the South to the frozen Arctic Sea. The Obi, the Lena, and the Yenisei are all, like the Volga, over 2000 miles long; so is the Amur, which flows east to the Sea of Japan; and many of the tributaries which join the Arctic rivers are long and important, and have helped much in the development of the country. In West Siberia the railway runs through a belt of very fertile black earth, like that in Little Russia, where wheat is grown, and dairy farms are rapidly developing.

Thousands of settlers from other parts of Russia are brought every year by train to fill up the vast silent tracts of Siberia. The line runs past Omsk and near Tomsk, past Irkutsk, round the south of Lake Baikal—a most difficult piece of engineering; then onwards through Manchuria, which belongs to China, to Vladivostock, with some branch lines.

THE MONSTERS OF A PAST AGE WHOSE BODIES ARE PRESERVED TODAY

Many towns are growing up on the line, both trade centers and mining towns. Omsk is the center of the agricultural industry of Siberia. At Irkutsk, the largest town in Siberia, are gold-smelting works, besides other industries, and a university.

The coldest place is on the River Lena where the difference in the winter and summer temperatures is the greatest known. There are islands in the Pacific where the temperature is almost the same all the year round.

At the mouth of the Lena, and in other parts of the Arctic shores, the remains have been discovered of mammoths with long, woolly hair, frozen hard in the icy mud by which they were suddenly overwhelmed ages ago. Their flesh, when first exposed, was actually eaten by the wild animals prowling around. Some of the monsters have been preserved and set up in various museums, and interesting photographs have been taken of these creatures, so miraculously kept for centuries after all their kind had disappeared from the earth.

There is a large trade in ivory from the tusks of these prehistoric animals

SINGING THE OLD FOLK-RUNES

In presenting the Kalevala, the well-known national epic of the Finns, as well as the ancient folk-runes, there are two singers who sit opposite each other holding each other by the hand. While singing they swing their bodies backwards and forwards. Generally they sit facing each other astride of the same bench instead of on opposite benches.

found in the New Siberian Islands, which lie off the mouth of the Lena.

It now takes about ten days to travel the 5000 miles between Moscow and Vladivostock, and the last part of the line is full of reminders of the dreadful war between the Russians and Japanese in 1905, when Russian soldiers were brought across Asia by thousands on the Siberian Railway, to perish miserably in the struggle. The Russian Navy was practically destroyed near Port Arthur on the Yellow Sea.

Many strange-looking people are seen at the stations along the Siberian line—Chinese, Mongols, Russian emigrants, and wild people of the steppes. Some of these join the Siberian line, where it crosses the Urals, from the railway that runs through Orenburg, on the Ural River, from Tashkent, beyond the Sea of Aral, which, again, is joined to the Trans-Caspian line. Much trade with Central Asia comes this way.

The Urals run for over 1000 miles to the Arctic shores, and form a great store-house of mineral riches. Dreary plains of snow and ice in winter, and damp swamps in summer, lie between them and Archangel, on the White Sea.

FINLAND, NOW A REPUBLIC

Finland, "the land of lakes and fens," became a republic in 1918. Visitors go there to fish and boat and bathe, for the clear lakes are delightful, and the scenery, with its woods and streams, is very pretty. There is enough fall in many of the streams to give water-power for various purposes, such as sawing and wood-pulping, and the towns are numerous and interesting, and most of them are full of re-

COUNT LEO TOLSTOY

minders of Swedish days. Helsingfors, the capital, was founded by Gustavus Vasa in the sixteenth century, and it has a Senate House and a university. Abo is a busy place, with much trade, and has an interesting cathedral, dedicated to the English St. Henry. The Finlanders are very generally educated, and are deeply interested in reforms and good government, and in finding out the best ways of living. Finland is one of the countries where women are counted as citizens, and are allowed to help to choose the representatives who settle public matters, as well as men. They can even be elected as representatives themselves.

THE RUSSIA OF TODAY

Soviet Russia, as it is now called, is a Republic of Soviets of Workers', Soldiers', and Peasants' Delegates.

Soviet Russia is smaller in area and population by a quarter than Russia before the world war. Finland, Esthonia, Letvia, Lithuania, Poland and Georgia are now independent states. The result of these changes is the restriction of the western coast of Russia to a narrow section of land at the Gulf of Finland, and the natural consequence was the removal of the Capital from Petrograd to the earlier Capital Moscow.

The greatest leader of thought in Russia, as well as the greatest influence for gaining freedom by peaceful methods, was Count Leo Tolstoy, who died in 1910. He lived in the very heart of Russia, not very far from Moscow. Until the end of his life this old man of more than eighty, with long white beard and piercing eyes, wore a peasant's smock and led the life of a peasant. He feared no one, not even the Czar.

Some of his books give beautiful, if sad, pictures of the peasants he loved so well—the peasants whose lives he shared, though he was born a rich man —and of the attempts he has made to educate them. Others, again, show in burning words the wrongs suffered by Russian reformers at the hands of spies, police, and governors. His voice, too, rings clear and loud as he denounces the wrongs of the peasants, and the evils of luxury.

The Czar Kolokol, or Great Bell of Moscow, the largest bell in the world.

BRIDE-CHOOSING CHRISTMAS EVE

On Chrismas Eve, in certain villages in Russia, it is the custom for marriageable girls to assemble in the house of the head man. Then the mistress of the house veils each of them. Young men wishing to wed wait outside while this is being done and are then brought in one after the other, each to bow before one of the veiled figures; whereupon the mistress lifts the covering and the pair become engaged. It is more than probable that in all cases the man is well aware of the identity of the girl he chooses in this manner.

In Russia the co-mingling of the East with the West is seen there in all matters of life, custom and tradition. Only those who recognize this fact can ever hope to understand the apparent anachronisms in Russian life and character, or to scratch deeper than the surface of Russian history and tradition. In no set of Russian customs is this impinging of the more conventional ideas of the West upon the laxer and more primitive ideas of the East more clearly marked than in those relating to marriage. The old order and the new dwell side by side in Russia to-day, and at present have in reality mingled very little, and often are indirectly related the one to the other. A wedding, according to the Greek church, to which Russia belongs is instinct with beauty and mystic meaning.

If a Russian girl reaches the age of twenty without having married she usually feels herself, and even is considered by her friends, to be disgraced. To be called an old maid in Russia is, by many girls, considered a great affront. As is the case in Turkey, there are few old maids in Russia, and every woman there either marries or pretends that she is married.

The details of marriages are usually arranged through some priest or through a *svacha* or a matrimonial agent. The latter always knows all the business of the eligible *partis*, their families, the amount of money that the man or girl has, and the requirements of those who wish to marry.

THE BRIDE BOWS TO HER MOTHER-IN-LAW

On arriving at the husband's house the wife has between her thumb and first finger a piece of copper money, which the master of ceremonies takes and throws away as a symbol of purchasing land for her. After she has entered the house, her mother-in-law meets her with bread, and leads her in, whereupon the bride kneels and bows to her.

ABOVE THE ARCTIC CIRCLE IN LAPLAND

THE Lapps, a race of small but hardy people, live up above the Arctic Circle in a section of Europe that really belongs to several other countries, Norway, Sweden and Russia. These people are unlike their other European neighbors and are of a Mongoloid origin.

Life is very different in a country where it is very cold for nine months of the year. All the year round these people must dress warmly in the skins of reindeer and thick wool and as a result they are not clean and neat as are their Scandinavian neighbors to the south. They are mostly uneducated but withal seem to be merry and contented. The whole family, and even the dogs, use the same cone-shaped tent as a home.

A LAPLANDER

The Lapps, who may be divided into mountain, sea, forest and river Lapps, are of extremely small stature, the men being very rarely above five feet in height, with legs somewhat short in proportion to their bodies, a low broad nose, and a complexion which, whatever its natural color, is swarthy owing to their habits of life and the severity of the climate.

A LAPP WOMAN AND CHILD

Lapp girls marry at a very early age, but owing to hard work and the severity of the climate soon look old. The babies are always carried about in little cradles, as shown above. Each child at birth is given a reindeer.

Some of the Lapp girls are very pretty, with light blue eyes, fair hair and lovely complexions, and the young men, dressed in their best for the Easter Celebrations, present a dignified appearance. They lead an extremely simple life, being, for the most part, hunters and fishermen. In the winter they live on the outskirts of the great forests and look after their reindeer. When summer comes, they leave their conical huts and go to the mountains following the reindeer, which they let go free.

DRIVING ON SKIS, LAPLAND

The Lapps travel at a great pace driving reindeer. They usually carry a spade stick to assist them to preserve their balance, and to dig beneath the snow for the reindeer moss.

A SUMMER CAMP, LAPLAND

In summer mosquitoes make life in Lapland almost unbearable, and the inhabitants leave the forests for the mountains or sea coast. The reindeer, whose milk is not fit to drink at this season, are set free till the winter.

Constantinople, built, like Rome, upon seven hills, is of such importance that all nations covet it. It is picturesque and dirty, but the old, insanitary, narrow streets are becoming fewer and fewer. This picture of the Turkish capital shows the varied character of its architecture. Buildings of European appearance are everywhere mixed up with mosques that have their roofs covered with rows of little domes looking for all the world like mud pies.

THE BALKAN PENINSULA

JUGOSLAVIA, RUMANIA, BULGARIA, ALBANIA, GREECE AND TURKEY IN EUROPE

THE Balkan Peninsula is washed by four seas: The Adriatic, the blue Aegean, the sea of many islands, the Sea of Marmora, and the Black Sea. Two narrow straits, called the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus, connect the Sea of Marmora with the Sea of Many Islands and the Black Sea.

Most of this long coastline, like that of Italy, is very beautiful; so are the many islands that surround it. We find the same deliciously warm, sunny climate, the same lovely bays with white or yellow sands, the same green hills or bare rocks running down to the intensely blue sea, the same exquisite veil of shining haze, fit robe for a country whose early legends and history are the most mysteriously beautiful and wonderful in the world.

But in the Balkan Peninsula we have no story, of various separate states gradually fusing into one nation and kingdom. Rugged highlands cover much of its surface, the chief ranges being the sheltering Balkans, which give their name to the peninsula, and stretch across it, south of the Danube, east and west. The height of these mountains varies from 2000 to 8000 feet, the highest being twice the height of the peaks of Scotland. Many other ranges branch off in different directions; the Pindus chain, striking southward, forms a sort of backbone in the narrower part of the peninsula. There are several large plains, the chief being the great plain of the Lower Danube. South of the Balkans is the plain drained by the Maritza river; and the plain of Thessaly lies east of the Pindus range. These, and many smaller plains, are much isolated and cut off from each other by the far-reaching mountains, across which it has been difficult to make good roads.

Another chief reason why the different states which were gradually formed in these plains and on the hillsides have never really united is that the peoples who have settled and ruled in them belong to quite different races, with different speech, and, to some extent, different religion.

Twice in the centuries since the birth of Christ there has been a ruling power in the peninsula strong enough

to keep for a time the various states more or less under its control and leadership. But an unconquerable desire for independence has led to grim and tragic warfare all through the years.

GREECE, A FAMOUS LAND SHAPED LIKE A MULBERRY LEAF

Let us start at the southern end of the peninsula, the Morea, shaped like a mulberry leaf, the stalk that joins it to the mainland being the Isthmus of Corinth, which is now cut by a canal. The Morea, with the provinces to the north of it and many fairy-like islands, make up the far-famed country of Greece. This small country, especially the division of it called Attica, with its famous capital, Athens, has influenced the lives and thoughts of countless people for more than two thousand years, so great were the learning and the taste of those who lived and worked in it in the far past.

In the fourth century A. D., Constantine, the Christian emperor, took the old Greek city of Byzantium, situated on the point where the rushing stream of the Bosphorus widens into the Sea of Marmora. A fine situation, thought the emperor: Asia in sight across the straits, a splendid harbor—the Golden Horn, we call it now—running seven miles inland.

HOW CONSTANTINE BUILT THE NEW ROME IN FULL SIGHT OF ASIA

And so he added to the city, built walls to defend it, and called it New Rome. But the name it has always borne is Constantinople—the city of Constantine—and it soon became the capital of the Eastern or Greek Empire, also called the Byzantine Empire.

Unhappily, differences arose between the Churches of the East and West, and so it came to pass that as Christianity spread over Europe in the centuries when the formerly wild peoples were settling down, these peoples joined either the Western Church, with the Pope as head, or the Eastern Church, ruled by the Patriarch of Constantinople. We shall see later that the English, French, and Germans, were converted by missionaries from Rome. But the Slavonic peoples, and others of different stock who became very much mixed up with the Slavs, settling, as they did, about the Balkans and the Danube from the sixth century onwards, had most to do with the Eastern Empire, and so took their Christianity from the Eastern or Greek Church. Chief among these peoples were some whose names appear on our modern maps—the Bulgars, who settled between the Danube and the Balkans, and whose kingdom now reaches over the southern slopes of the mountains; and the Serbs, who settled to the west of them, in Serbia, and other smaller states near the Adriatic. Many and sore were the struggles between the Eastern emperors and these settlers on the northern boundaries of their dominions.

THE PEOPLE OF THE MOUNTAINS AND THE BUILDERS UP OF KINGDOMS

Let us look a little closer at the land on these northern boundaries, Then, as now, the noble Danube River in its middle course rolled on from the distant Alps and Carpathians, forming a splendid waterway from the plain of Hungary to the Black Sea. Then, as now, well-watered, fertile plains lay on each side of the river, shut in by the Carpathian mountains on the north and the Balkans in the south. The northern plain, with its sheltering slopes, became settled by tribes whose lands later became independent kingdoms, called Moldavia and Wallachia.

In the picturesque mountain country between the Black Sea and the Adriatic, a perfect ferment of peoples

This is a young Serbian woman of the Greek Orthodox Church, the religion that most Serbians profess.

The picturesque national costume of Montenegro is shown in this picture of one of the soldiers of this state.

The people of Albania were formerly all Christians, but many of them, like this man, are now Mohammedans.

This is a Serbian woman belonging to the Roman Catholic Church, as indicated by the way she dresses.

The sailors of the Greek seas are very unlike our ideas of what a sailor should be. This is a mariner of Cos.

This is another type of Albanian warrior, and shows the curious kilted costume worn in the south.

There are many Albanians who still remain Christians, and here we see a Roman Catholic woman of Albania.

The people of Bulgaria, as shown in this picture, are a fine type. Elementary education is compulsory.

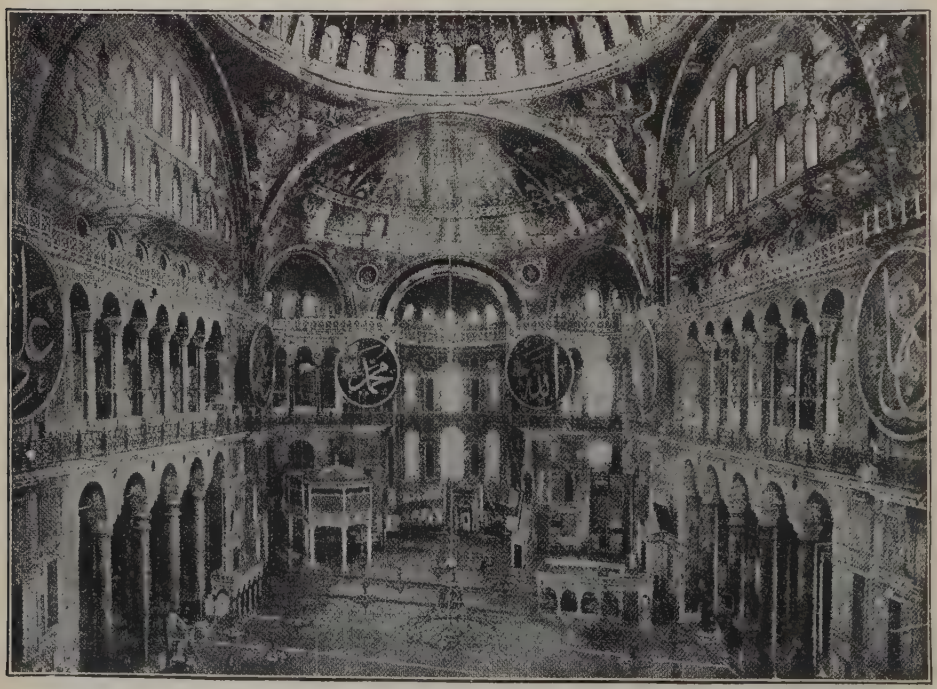
This is a typical peasant woman of Turkish race in the quaint costume she wears on gala occasions.

The Macedonians, a Slavic people, are akin to the Bulgarians. Here we see a Macedonian shepherd.

The Bosnians were once Austrian subjects, but now are part of the Kingdom of the Serbs and Croats.

The Bosnian women wear a picturesque costume, an important part of which is the many-colored sash.

The Roman Emperor Julian, who was the nephew of Constantine the Great, had been brought up as a Christian, but all the time he secretly admired the heathen gods of Greece and Rome, and when he became emperor he tried to restore the pagan worship. Because of this, he has been known in history as Julian the Apostate. He tried hard to win the Christians over to paganism by flattery and favor, and here we see him addressing a conference of Christians. It is said that on his death-bed Julian exclaimed: "Thou hast conquered, O Galilean!"



The wonderful mosque of St. Sophia, at Constantinople, of which we see the interior in this picture, was built originally as a Christian church, by the Emperor Justinian the Great, and it has always been the world's finest example of Byzantine architecture. When the Turks took Constantinople they turned it into a mosque, and so what had once been the most beautiful Christian church became the most magnificent sanctuary of the Moslem world. Round the walls may be seen large circular plaques bearing texts from the Koran.

settled and fought and struggled with each other and with their neighbors, into whose hands they fell ever and again as the years rolled on. The kingdoms of the Bulgarians and Serbians were particularly large and important, and towns and monasteries rose up among the mountains in the sunny valleys. Bosnia, too, managed to keep itself distinct, and to develop into a kingdom.

About the middle of the sixth century the names of three great men stand out—the heroic General Belisarius, the Emperor Justinian the Great, and the writer Procopius, who gives such a full account of their doings. Justinian's two chief works were the revision of the old Roman law and the building of the noble cathedral of St. Sophia at Constantinople. By bringing the stern old laws of the empire more into harmony with the gentler religion of Christ, Justinian did much good for his own times; but not only that, so well and thoroughly was the work done that this revision has ever since been of the greatest value to those who are starting the study of law. With regard to his other chief work, twice had the cathedral of St. Sophia been burned down.

The building of the wonderful church of St. Sophia 1400 years ago

Within forty days of the second disaster, Justinian started the rebuilding of the magnificent place of worship we see today. Its shape is that of a Greek cross—the four arms of equal length—with a vast dome in the center. Procopius speaks of the glorious colors of the marble pillars—taken from the old temples of Asia—green and purple, glowing red and glittering white; the bright sunshine from the many windows of the dome falling on beautiful mosaics and gorgeous gilding, and on a wealth of gold and silver plate and precious gems. Such was St. Sophia 1400 years ago.

About a hundred years after Justinian, the Emperor Heraclius fought many campaigns against the Persians, far away on the banks of the Euphrates, in Asia; and the cause of the war was this: In Jerusalem—the city so sacred to Christians, and at that time part of the emperor's dominions—there was treasured up a piece of wood, believed to be part of the Cross. The Persians, who had long been encroaching on the emperor's borders, came and took this piece of holy wood away. Heraclius, after much fighting, succeeded in getting it back from the Persians, and, returning to Constantinople, laid it before the altar of St. Sophia, before restoring it to its shrine in Jerusalem.

It was during the years of this Persian war that a young man, belonging to an Arab tribe, was growing up in a poor and adventurous way. He was a reformer, for he taught the Arabs, or Saracens, to give up idolatry, and to form themselves into one nation.

Mohammed's letter to the kings and the Persian king's reply

His new religion taught that there is but one God; that both the Jewish and Christian religions had come from God, but that he, Mohammed, was sent to teach a more perfect faith, still, and to force it upon the whole world. Mohammed sent a sort of circular letter to the kings of the earth calling upon them to embrace this faith. The Persian king answered that he would put the prophet in chains when he had time; Heraclius made no direct reply, but sent some small presents.

It is almost impossible for us to realize the force and fury with which the followers of Mohammed, catching the fire of his tremendous enthusiasm,

set forth to conquer the world to their faith by the sword. They not only did not fear death, but for the sake of their faith and of the paradise promised by Mohammed they were ready to die. They firmly believed they would then be safe and sure of perfect happiness in the world to come.

It was this fierce spirit in the Saracens—for so they were called as they spread, conquering, far and near—that caused them to be so greatly dreaded. Province after province in Asia fell to them, including Jerusalem, and the holy wood was hastily taken back to St. Sophia. The magnificent walls of Constantinople saved the city from capture by the Mohammedans for another seven centuries, but nearly all the time the emperors of the East were engaged in fighting the followers of the prophet.

THE TWO BRANCHES OF THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH BREAK APART

During these years the two branches of the Christian Church were drifting wider apart. Latin ceased to be a common tongue, and the Roman element became less and less strong. The Greek language and literature were more widely cultivated, and many scholars were at work in monasteries and schools, often in remote spots out of the way of the turmoil of incessant war. For, besides the struggle with the Mohammedan Saracens and Turks, who followed them, the empire was beset with wild tribes pressing in from the north. Such were the Russians, who united in a single horde about the middle of the ninth century, and worked their way to the Black Sea. They made raids on the Bosphorus, and ravaged Bulgaria.

To make matters worse, there were a great many feeble and wicked emperors, stone-blind to the pressing needs of their times, who allowed their great inheritance to slip out of their weak and idle hands. Occasionally a strong man arose, such as Basil II, in the same century that saw the Norman conquest of England. Basil managed to subdue a strong compact against him formed by Bulgaria and Serbia inland, and Macedonia by the sea. His cruelty was horrible, and gained him the name of the "Slayer of the Bulgarians." He moved back the border of the empire to the Danube; but his successors were weak and unworthy, and quite unable to resist the onward rush of the Seljouk Turks from the East, who, having become Mohammedans, gained Asia Minor and Jerusalem.

THE DESTRUCTION OF CONSTANTINOPLE AND THE SCATTERING OF ITS TREASURES

To this day pilgrims make their way, often on foot, from all the countries round, to visit the sacred shrines in the Holy City, and it was the tales of the bad treatment of the pilgrims long ago that roused Europe to start the Crusades.

The Fourth Crusade, headed by Baldwin of Flanders, fell very far short of the high aims with which these "Holy Wars" began. Detained for awhile at Venice while waiting for ships to carry them eastwards, the Crusaders were persuaded to take up the private quarrels of the Venetians, and in the end they helped them to besiege Constantinople.

The city was taken on the second attack, and the inhabitants were treated with terrible cruelty; their beautiful city was sacked, and the art treasures that Constantine and his successors had gathered together were ruined.

To make paltry coins, the most beautiful bronze statues the world has ever seen were cast into the melting pot. So "Christians" of the West treated Constantinople of the East.

Baldwin was elected emperor; but his rule was not for long. The Venetians and the Genoese, bent on enriching themselves by trade, shared various islands and ports between them. The large island of Crete, with its steep mountains dark with evergreen foliage and its smiling valleys, fell for a time to Venice.

During the last century of the existence of the once mighty but now dying empire, its great destroyers, the Ottoman Turks, or Osmanli, under their crescent banner, were gradually carving their way to the heart of the empire, Constantinople. The Asiatic provinces, the chief islands and ports, fell one by one, and still on they came.

THE MARCH OF THE TURKS INTO EUROPE, AND THE DOOM OF THE QUARRELERS

The story of how the Turkish Crown Prince with eighty followers crossed into Europe on rafts is most thrilling. At the narrowest part of the Dardanelles—no wider than a good-sized river—they succeeded in gaining a fort, the first foothold of the Ottoman Turks in Europe. Before many years had passed, towns, villages, valleys, all fell to the conquerors—even Adrianople, the second city of the empire, situated in a beautiful and fertile valley. There were several causes which helped on the Osmanli besides their own daring and power in arranging the best ways to fight. The rulers of the old empire were weak and foolish; the Balkan Christians were fiercely destroying each other while the hour of their doom was coming nearer; and the other Christian peoples around, the Venetians, Genoese, Hungarians, Poles, Austrians, were too disunited, too busy with their own affairs, to join heart and soul against the powerful invaders at their gates.

BOYS OF CONQUERED PEOPLES DRILLED TO FIGHT AGAINST THEIR COUNTRIES

Sigismund of Hungary headed a force when the Turks burst through the Balkans; but they were too strong for him, and, besides he was much taken up with persecuting John Huss, the enlightened reformer, and his followers. Later, the brave Hunyadi, with the Poles, defeated the Turks, but was afterwards in his turn, defeated at the battle of Kossovo.

Constantinople in these days was more and more becoming a city-state instead of the heart of a once mighty empire, and the Turks were more and more determined to have it for their capital; so all the time they were increasing their ships and their army. One way of increasing the strength of the army was to make the conquered Christian peoples give up the finest of their boys. These boys were brought up as Mohammedans, and drilled to fight against the countries which had given them birth. These troops were the famous Janissaries, or new soldiers, who helped so largely to destroy the Eastern Empire, and who, later, gained so much power over the sultans.

THE TAKING OF CONSTANTINOPLE, AND THE LAST CHRISTIAN SERVICE IN ST. SOPHIA

The ruins of the thick walls of Constantine's city show how strong were the defences when Constantine XI, the last emperor, stood bravely in the breach against Mohammed II. He knew the end was near, and at midnight had taken the sacrament in the beautiful church of St. Sophia. Then, after a short rest in his ruined palace, he sadly mounted his horse and rode away amid the sobs of the crowd to the post of danger. Before long the besiegers made their entrance over his dead body. The streets were deserted, for the people had gathered in St. Sophia, in frantic prayer, expecting a miracle to save them. Alas! a piteous wailing went up as they were dragged out to be killed or

sent to slavery, and then, only a few hours after the celebration of Constantine's last act of Christian worship, the loud voice of the Mohammedan crier rang out through the huge building: "There is no god but Allah. Mohammed is the prophet of Allah." This was on May 29, 1453.

St. Sophia still stands in its grandeur, and many of its beautiful mosaics still tell of its Christian past, though for more than four centuries it has been used as a Mohammedan mosque.

THE FLIGHT OF THE LEARNED MEN, AND THE BIRTH OF THE NEW LEARNING

This conquest by the Turks of the old Greek Empire, and particularly that of Constantinople, caused the flight of many students and learned men, with the manuscripts they so much loved, towards the West, chiefly to Italy. In Florence, Lorenzo de' Medici gathered round him men who were interested in the old Greek manuscripts and in the old Greek art. The knowledge of these writings and of this art had been shut up so long in the East that when the study of them was revived it was called the New Learning, and the New Birth of Art. Many scholars from all over Europe journeyed to Italy in those days, and returned to their own countries to fire others with enthusiasm for the study of Greek and its wonderful literature. "I have given my whole soul to Greek learning," writes Erasmus, the friend of More and Colet, from Paris, "and as soon as I get any money I shall buy Greek books—and then I shall buy some clothes."

During the years that followed the taking of Constantinople, the crescent on the Ottoman banner shone triumphantly over an immense and powerful empire from the Danube to the Euphrates, from the Caspian Sea to the Straits of Gibraltar. The discipline and unity of purpose of the Mohammedans prevailed against the jealousies and quarrels of the Christian kingdoms. Deeds of daring and heroic resistance on their part were not wanting, and there were terrible revolts and massacres; but so bitter were the jealousies between Christian rulers, so intense the hatred between the East and West branches of the Church, and between Catholics and Protestants, that not only was there no united front against the followers of Mohammed, but on several occasions Christians sought alliance with them against their fellow Christians.

THE SULTANS OF TURKEY, AND THE MAGNIFICENCE OF SULEIMAN THE GRAND

Among the Turkish rulers—who came to be called sultans—were many strong and clever men. One of the greatest was Mohammed II, who had ridden over Constantine's body and up the nave of St. Sophia on that eventful day in May, 1453. He ruled for thirty years, and conquered Serbia, Bosnia, and Greece.

Suleiman the Magnificent lived at the same time as the trio of Western kings, Henry VIII of England, Francis I of France, and Charles V of Germany. An old German song shows the terror which this "Grand Turk" cast over the Holy Roman Empire. It says: "The furious Turk has lately brought great forces in Hungary; from Hungary he has quickly entered Austria in the light of day; Bavaria is his for the taking, thence he presses onward and may soon come to the Rhine, for which cause we have no peace or rest."

It was said of Suleiman that while he ruled, sword and pen were never dry, so continually was he fighting and so great was the number of writers in his day. It was he who swore he would take no rest till the prayer of the prophet rang out from the tower of

THE OPENING OF THE FIRST BALKAN WAR

In October, 1912, the King of Montenegro declared he would no longer allow the massacre of his countrymen across the Turkish border, and sent his troops to war. To the Montenegrins it was a holy war and the army included every man who could set forth. Their priests blessed them and they set out with religious ceremonies, vowing to free their countrymen or perish

St. Stephen's Church in Vienna. But his quarter of a million Turks were obliged to retire, and the spread of Turkish power in the Danube valley was checked for a while.

Decline of Turkish Power

Shortly after Suleiman's death the battle of Lepanto set a limit to Turkish sea power. A succession of weak rulers followed. Then the family of Kiuprili came into power and under one of these the Turks tried to capture Vienna. Enormous preparations were made and alliances renewed with most of the surrounding nations. The vast host advanced, spreading terror and desolation in their way. They encamped before Vienna. There was but a small garrison in the city and the Turks seemed to have everything their way.

Two terrible months had passed and it seemed but a question of days before the Turks would gain Vienna. Suddenly a troop of Poles was seen hastening down the vine-clad slopes, shouting "Sobieski forever!"

The terror of the name of this gallant King of Poland, who had inflicted such terrible defeats on them before, filled the Turks with a panic, and they fled on all sides. The siege was raised, and the Turks were driven out of Austria. Since this September day in 1683 the tide of Turkish power in Europe has steadily ebbed.

Who's Who in the Balkans Since the World War

The Serbian name no longer appears on our map of Europe. After the defeat of the Central Powers in the World War this little nation became one of the leading parts of the now important country known as Jugo-Slavia, which means "South Slavs." Jugo-Slavia is officially called "The kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes" and contains what was formerly Montenegro, together with certain portions of former Austria-Hungary, Bosnia, Herzogovina, Dalmatia, Croatia, Slavonia, Carniola, Carinthia, Syria and Istria. This new kingdom of Jugo-Slavia has a population of over eleven million and an area of almost one hundred thousand square miles. The people are of closely related racial stock and language and with their great Danube River, their mountains and mineral resources, and their agricultural lands should live as a mighty nation.

Rumania, formerly spelled Roumania, came out of the World War with a greatly increased population, now given as over seventeen millions. The people are of the Latin race. The mouth of the Danube is in this country and it is a land largely of farmers.

Bulgaria was allied with the Central Powers, which impaired its progress somewhat, but it is a hard working country with an area a trifle smaller than the state of Pennsylvania and should have a future. It is a state that believes strongly in education.

Albania is a little country nestling on the eastern coast of the Adriatic Sea. It was created as an independent state at a conference of the Great Powers in London in 1912 and 1913.

Then there is Greece, the land of many achievements, and with Greece must be remembered the islands of the Aegean Sea, which have had so much to do with the reaching out of this country.

Finally a word for Turkey, whose story you have just been following. This once powerful factor in Europe is now reduced to just a little section round about Constantinople, and even this is held under a guardianship of the Great Powers. The Turk has been pushed back into Asia, and even there his power is greatly lessened.

DOWN THE BLUE DANUBE

FOR nearly two thousand miles the Danube winds its way, through lovely lands, with peoples of many nations on its banks. For majesty of scenery, for constant variety of view, for endless differences in the character of the peoples of many tribes and nations, for quaintness and charm in the costumes of the people, for beauty of village after village, for romance in records of events through the ages, the Danube may be reckoned unequaled in Europe.

The Danube from its source to the sea—Looking up the river for 1750 miles.

While countless travelers, year after year, go up and down the Rhine, the sister river of the Rhine, far grander in many ways, is comparatively neglected. The Danube, second in size only to the Volga, is the most attractive river in Europe for picturesque scenery, historic associations, and quaint and varied populations of its banks. Germans, Austrians, Hungarians, Slavonians, Bulgars and Rumanians, all own in succession the mighty waters of the "beautiful blue Danube;" all are equally lost in admiration of its loveliness everywhere, and equally proud to possess some part of its rapid and ever-singing waters.

ITS SCENERY AND THE LIFE ON ITS BANKS

There is a peculiar charm about the birth of this wonderful river. Germany has the honor of nursing the infant Danube, but one of the oldest of German controversies centers round the question whether this or that twin stream is the baby Danube. For two very delightful villages, St. Georgen and Donaueschingen, claim the cradle of the river. Both are in the south of the great Black Forest, which, in the days of the Roman Cæsars, covered nearly the whole area of West Central Europe. From the elevation of 2850 feet above sea-level, among the wooded valleys and mountains, runs a tiny stream of clear water, tumbling over the moss-covered rocks. This is the Brege, which runs to St. Georgen.

Ten miles farther south another tiny brook chants the announcement of its birth and finds its way to the other village. This is the Brigach. A

mile and a half below Donaueschingen the two brooks embrace each other and become the Danube. The people of Donaueschingen have enclosed the source of the Brigach in a handsome fountain basin inscribed so as to assure the traveler that that is the true cradle of the Danube, and they have also, in their own market-place, erected another finely sculptured fountain, adorned with dolphins, indicating an association with the distant sea. Above the Brigach springhead is a group of statues, representing Baar, the parish in which the tiny spring gushes up, clasping her daughter, the river, and whispering instructions for her journey.

The ancient Romans loved the Danube, and knew it from end to end; and as the people of Donaueschingen quote Strabo, so those of St. Georgen cite Tacitus in support of their claim to the true birthplace. But perhaps it does not greatly matter where the mighty river has its rise; certainly, it flows from the white swans and the storks of the Black Forest to the sturgeon of the Black Sea, 1750 miles away, and the area it drains with its many noble tributaries is estimated at more than a quarter of a million square miles. And what a series of matchless pictures it presents all along its way! What a panorama of history its romantic old castles unfold! It was for many generations the highway to Oriental lands. The Crusaders made the Danube their main track, and as we journey down its channel we find their memorials at many points, while the legends connected with one beauty-spot after another would fill whole libraries of books.

The history of the river begins, indeed, with the tiny streams, for the Donaueschingen folk delight to tell how Marie Antoinette, when a child of fourteen, rested in their little town on the way from Vienna to Paris for her marriage—and for the guillotine. And nearly every town or village has its place in history, so that our interest never flags. In their early courses the Rhine and the Danube are very near neighbors, for they are separated only by the Hegau, the picturesque extinct volcanic ridge which is the watershed of this part of the Schwarzwald. But while the Rhine rolls away northward, the Danube rushes east.

CASTLES ON THE PEAKS AND HAMLETS ON THE CLIFFS

While yet traversing a part of the Black Forest it runs between towering and castle-crowned peaks which speak eloquently of the stirring past. One of the most imposing of the ruined fortresses soars up over Tuttlingen, a little town at the foot of the Homburg. Here was born the famous author of that most popular of all German patriotic songs, "Watch on the Rhine," which was to Imperial Germany what the "Marseillaise" is to Republican France. The Danube is not navigable for steamers till after we reach Ulm, for there are no fewer than twenty-three dams and weirs obstructing the current between its sources and that city. But many boats and canoes ply between the villages, and the scenery is so enchanting that the way is like a path through a paradise. For the most part we pass by romantic villages at the feet of precipitous limestone cliffs, crowned with numerous castles that tell of the glory of the Middle Ages. Artists love to sketch Kallenburg, Wildenstein, Wernwag, Falkenstein, and many another splendid ruin on these cliffs and crags that tower over the Upper German Rhine as it makes its way from Baden to Bavaria. At Beuron is a famous and imposing monastery, where the monks

The Danube, rising in the Black Forest and flowing into the Black Sea after a journey of 1700 miles, winds curiously in its upper reaches, as is shown in this fine panoramic view.

toil hard at haymaking and other pursuits of the fields.

ROCKY GORGES AND PASTORAL REGIONS OF ANCIENT ULM

And so we drift down-stream to one of the most notable spots on the Upper Rhine. For Sigmaringen, pitched very near the boundary line of the two States of Baden and Hohenzollern, was the residential town of Prince Hohenzollern. Its situation is of the utmost beauty, for the little capital stands imposingly on a high promontory. Forty miles away is the castle of Hohenzollern, the seat of the former Imperial Family of Prussia. We have come as far as Sigmaringen through a series of rocky gorges, and we shall come to even grander scenes in various parts of this mighty river; but here we enter on a pastoral region. On the banks are quaintly dressed peasant girls mowing or raking. Many of them wear curious, half-coned bonnets, slanting sharply back and brightly ornamented with fancy-work. Church spires of curious shapes are seen at frequent intervals, marking the places where quaint old villages lie in the peaceful landscape.

Who that has visited Ulm can ever lose the memory of it or the sense of its charm? It contains much of that delight for the eye so perfectly expressed by Goethe when he described architecture as "frozen music." It is one of the most marvelous relics of a past world that was absolutely different from the world of our own time.

The Danube becomes quite majestic as it rolls rapidly through this place, and here it first becomes navigable for small steamers, being considerably enlarged by its junction with the River Blau.

THE OLD TOWN WITH THE HIGHEST TOWER IN THE WORLD

Ulm is the second city in Würtemberg, Stuttgart being the capital. But the Würtembergers are prouder of Ulm than of any other spot in their fine State. The cathedral, the far-famed and magnificent Ulmer Dom, is the largest church in the German Empire next to the cathedral at Cologne. The tower is the loftiest belonging to any church on earth, being 530 feet high. Though the cathedral was begun in 1377, the incomparable tower was not finished till 1890. Ulm is full of quaint and pleasing buildings belonging to the Middle Ages. The cathedral is a Protestant church, for though nearly all South Germany is Roman Catholic, Ulm is an exception since the city accepted the Protestant Reformation, and the inhabitants became followers of Martin Luther.

Just outside the city another stream besides the Blau reinforces the Danube. This is the Iller, which comes along with a pale-green current. Opposite to Ulm is New Ulm, and this is on the Bavarian side, so that now the Danube for some distance forms the boundary line between two important States of the Republic. Here, at New Ulm, was in ancient days really the oldest Ulm, for it was at this spot that the Romans had an important settlement. Let us not forget another of the glories of Ulm, for here the extraordinary poets and musicians called the Meistersingers flourished longer than in any other region. These minstrels sang hundreds of years ago in a quaint but beautiful dialect, and both at home and abroad they sang of love and Nature.

Ulm has seen tragedies in its history. Here, in 1805, General Mack surrendered to Napoleon's army under Marshal Ney, who thus became famous, and won the title of Duke of Elchingen, and the Grand Eagle of the Legion of Honor. Elchingen, the scene of the battle, is just below Ulm. And this part of the Danube

had in other spots been long before stained with the blood of brave warriors. We soon come to two small towns, Hochstad and Blenheim, where decisive battles were waged hundreds of years ago. Then, in 1703, the Austrians were worsted on these same banks by the Elector of Bavaria; but in the next year there came to this same place the British ensign, carried by the forces of the Duke of Marlborough, who at Blenheim won one of the "fifteen decisive battles of the world," utterly shattering the Franco-Bavarian host.

"Had the French triumphed in this battle," says one of our historians, "Protestantism might have been driven beyond the Elbe; the Stuart race, and with them the Romish ascendency, might have been re-established in England; the fire lighted by Latimer and Ridley might have been extinguished in blood; and the energy breathed by religious freedom into the Anglo-Saxon race might have expired. The destinies of the world would have been changed. The Colonial Empire of England would have withered and perished, as that of Spain had done in the grasp of the Inquisition. The Anglo-Saxon race would have been arrested in its mission to overspread the earth and subdue it."

Just where the little River Nebel runs into the Danube was that fearful battle fought. Though the French army numbered sixty thousand, it was almost entirely destroyed. Yet the battle provoked Southey to the satire of his moving poem on Blenheim, in which he finely scorns the glamor of military glory, ending his strain in the well-known words of Kaspar:

> And everybody praised the Duke,
> Who this great fight did win.
> "But what good came of it at last?"
> Quoth little Peterkin.
> "Why, that I cannot tell," said he;
> "But 'twas a famous victory."

But the surging roar of the rushing Danube was soon again to be mingled with the boom of cannon and the shoutings of warring troops. What a series of storm-centers is encountered in quick succession as we pursue our way along the Danube through Bavaria! For a few miles farther down the stream is a lovely old town called Donauwörth, famous long before those Napoleonic days because of what happened when it was one of the many old Free Cities. In 1632 Gustavus Adolphus, the renowned King of Sweden, stormed Donauwörth, and two years afterwards it was captured by that cruel enemy of the Protestants, Ferdinand II, to whom Germany owed nothing but bloodshed, misery, and desolation. But the Protestants triumphed, and Ferdinand, who wanted to destroy the Reformation, died with his dream unrealized.

And now the broadening Danube for forty miles runs across the great Bavarian plains, through great acres of marshland which have been reclaimed, and are exceedingly fruitful now. All the land around echoes with the memory of stirring events. Perhaps no river on earth, indeed, is more sonorous with voices of a wonderful past than is this grand European artery.

Soon we are at the point where an affluent, the Lechs, is welcomed into the current. Just a little distance up the Lechs is the village of Rain, where the great opponent of Gustavus Adolphus, the aged Bavarian General Tilly, was mortally wounded.

We are going towards Vienna, and it is indeed a lovely journey from Ulm to the Austrian capital, stopping a while at the chief cities on the banks, as famous in history as they are delightful for situation. These are Ratisbon, Passau, and Linz. What memories the names call up! But

there are many charming little towns and fairy-like hamlets in between. On many a hillside the Bavarian soil is blazing with flowers, and forget-me-nots by millions make an exquisite floral fringe for mile after mile of the banks. If you should land for a few hours at Vohlberg, the storks of the town will be among the inquisitive inhabitants to greet you. Their flat nests on the high-pitched gables are among the curiosities of many a German town.

But here at Vohlberg, in 1641, everything was destroyed by the Swiss, and the old church tower is chuck full of great cannon-balls. Massive ruins tell how strong the place was in the Middle Ages. But what awful days were those which are often styled the "good old times!" These relics of bloodthirsty ages constrain us to repeat the Bible question, "How sayest thou the former days were better than these?"

Truly industrious are the peasant folk we find here-about. Most of the farm work is done by strong girls, who are almost as useful as men and are paid only about $25 a year. We see them toiling in pouring rain and in bright sunshine; these stalwart maidens seem quite indifferent to weather, clad in short skirts and tight bodices, with shawls on their heads. They will eat bread and milk with the visitors and chat with them like friends, so simple and pleasant are the natives of these villages on the Danube.

Quickly at Eining, a little cluster of houses on the right bank, we are near the remains of the great Roman frontier station Abusina, which, near the most northerly point of the course of the Danube, was chosen as the chief Roman outpost against the German barbarians. It was set up fifteen years before the birth of Christ, and was maintained for 400 years. Across the river are distinct traces of Trajan's Wall, which stretched from this spot to Wiesbaden, on the Rhine; and close by also is Vergen of the "Niebelungenlied," where King Gunther and his Niebelungen, those princes in the story who possessed the magic hoard of wealth that caused woe and tragedy, crossed the Danube. They were on their way to Buda-Pesth and the Court of Attila, King of the Huns.

Weltenburg, still in beautiful Bavaria, has an old Benedictine monastery, which contains a great brewery and a pretty beer garden, with a regiment of stone mugs. The Germans are great beer-drinkers, and are none the better for the growing habit, which is causing much uneasiness among thoughtful observers throughout the land. Multitudes of this splendid nation—as among other lands, too—eat too much, drink too much, and smoke too much.

We must land at Ratisbon—or Regensburg—exquisite in its Gothic details. This is one of the chief architectural glories of all Germany. The great market-place overflows with delicious fruit, sold for ridiculously low prices, in the height of the season. The Danube is here divided into two channels by a long, rocky island, on which rests one of the pillars of a queer old stone bridge. The river, being narrow, and impeded by four massive piers of the bridge, tears and rages through the channels as if in wicked fury, while rapids and whirlpools make the passage perilous for little boats. Then the river, reinforced by the turbid waters of the Regen, broadens greatly and settles down into comparative tranquility, falling only eighteen inches in the mile, while it pours its great volume through the chief grain-growing plain of Bavaria. This is the plain of Straubing. Now the Danube turns

round and changes from its north-easterly course to take a south-easterly track towards Vienna, which is 533 miles from Donaueschingen.

In this part of the stream we begin to encounter those great, rough, flat boats which carry heavy cargoes right down the river as soon as winter is over. In winter they would be all broken up, for so tremendous is the force of the current that nothing can sail, or be towed, up the Danube. Only steam traffic is possible for most of the way.

Donaustauf, a village in the midst of lovely woods, makes a fine picture, for on a hill behind it stands the Walhalla, a temple in the Doric style, built in 1842 in exact imitation of the Parthenon at Athens. This building is magnificent, inside and out. It was erected by King Ludwig I, in memory of all the famous men and women of the past in Germany. From a beautiful flight of steps we look over a marvelous landscape, which is one vast garden of fertile and highly cultivated country, through which the Danube runs like a thin, pale blue streak. Red-roofed villages, with onion-shaped church towers, make the prospect abundantly alluring.

The quaintest and strangest costumes are worn by the people of this region. The peasant women delight in queer skull-caps with enormous ribbon bows, and they wear stiff, gaudily colored bodices and short petticoats, and the men take great pride in their long vests adorned with rows of big brass buttons down each side from the shoulders. And as we sail down the river the children are playing among the flowers that deck the grassy banks, while sometimes graceful deer peep out from neighboring forests and bound up to the stream to drink.

As we go on we catch sight of flocks of birds that we might take for seagulls, but they are fresh-water gulls. At Straubing the river becomes rough again, and here and at pretty villages farther on, such as Deggendorf, Winzer, and Hofkirchen, many fine ducks are seen teaching their broods to feed in the shallow backwaters. And presently we reach one of the most attractive cities on the banks of the Danube.

Passau is indescribably beautiful in its situation. It stretches out in an immense promontory, almost like an island, and is connected with both shores by a fine bridge. Here three rivers meet, and make an extraordinary scene for us to admire as we view it from the hill on which the castle stands. For Passau is at the confluence of the lovely Inn, coming all the way from Innsbruck, in Tyrol, and the inky black Ilz, and the Danube itself. What a place of teeming historical relics in buildings and associations is this town! It was the Roman Bojundrum, built a hundred years before the birth of Jesus, and in the early Christian era it became the seat of archbishops as powerful as many kings. The cathedral is one of the finest German churches of the seventeenth century, and the sight of it reminds us that Passau was the scene of an event for which all lovers of liberty must be eternally grateful, for here, in an old house now a post-office, the Emperor Charles V and the Elector of Saxony concluded the treaty of 1552, which established religious toleration in all Germany. A little beyond we come to Linz, known for the delicious cakes called Linzer Torte. There are fine stone dykes about here on both banks, and the town nestles at the feet of a chain of pretty hills. Soon after leaving Linz we find the Danube enlarged by the crystalline stream called the Traun,

and next are the famous rapids and whirlpools, caused partly by the rocks and partly by the narrowing of the stream between the mountain cliffs, and greatly dreaded by the Crusaders in ancient days. But the river has in modern times been made passable by the blasting of the worst rocks in the bed. Now long, straight reaches of the river bring us to Ybbs, once a great Roman encampment, known in history as Isidus.

We are now in Austria, the country that is proudest of the Blue Danube. The grandest piece of architecture on the river comes in view as we sail on. It is the great pile of the Benedictine monastery at Melk, famous in song and story since its foundation 900 years ago. We pass it by, and sail along a glorious mountain gorge, between wild rocks and cliffs more savage than in any other Danubian pass. Jagged precipices rise, crowned with dark foliage.

It is an enchanting progress for many miles, and brings us to a place which must always be remembered in England's history. For suddenly the lofty towers of the ruined castle of Durrenstein lift their shattered battlements against the violet sky, on the crowning pinnacle of a stupendous rocky spur. It is the fortress where, from his dungeon the English king, Richard Cœur de Lion heard the strains of the harp played by the wandering minstrel Blondel.

Soon we are sailing past imposing hills on which rises the noble Göttwieg Monastery, and then some low islands are to be threaded, as so often in this great stream, and we notice Tulln, one of the oldest Danube towns, celebrated in history as the point where, in 1683, a great army gathered to save Vienna from the domination of the cruel Turkish sultan.

The most popular portion of the Danube is the long gorge called the Wachau, the narrow chasm through which the river has to force its way between wooded mountains and crag-perched ruins. Quaint old towns invite us to land, and great vineyards line the rocky mountain slopes. The people of Vienna come here for holidays. The Wachau is a marvelous mixture of mountain, forest, and vineyard, and many an old stronghold is planted on these crags. Nothing else in Europe can compare with this reach of the Danube. Robber knights were dreaded here in olden times. They had their fortress at Aggstein, 600 feet above the water, and in the "rose garden" of one of these knights was a dungeon with a trap-door, down which many victims were thrown.

We are coming near to Vienna, passing Mautern, a little town of many battle tragedies, where in 1484 the King of Hungary defeated the Austrians, and in 1805 the Russians retreated before the French. From the Danube we see the spires of Vienna in the distance, but that proud city is not on the banks of the river, being connected with it by a canal known as the Wien.

The traveler down the Danube will surely halt at Orsova, near the famous iron gates, and he should take a delightful trip along the banks of that exquisite little tributary the Czerna, which runs along the valley of the Lower Carpathians, a range of mountains running north through Roumania. Soon we reach, in the Czerna Valley, the Baths of Hercules, nestling with their sulphur springs in a nook which was famous in old Roman days. Back to the Danube again, we cross to Belgrade, but here there is not much to see. As we go down we think also of battles, for on the right bank stands Semendria, a Turkish castle of the

THE SWORD DANCE IN SERBIA

The Serbian national dance is called the **kollo**, which means a circle, because the men and women hold each other by the hands, forming a circle. In the dance shown in this illustration, danced only by girls, the leader of the **kollo** wears a **cuirassier's helmet** and cuirass, and brandishes in her hand a cavalry sabre. Another girl carries a lance.

Bulgarian peasants crossing the Danube on a raft.

awful days, with eleven towers, that tell grimly of history and of tyranny now over forever. Turks, Austrians, and Russians fought for ages in this region, as Turks and Serbians and Bulgarians have fought recently. The stream grows much swifter and stronger here, and four steersmen have to hold the wheel. The river widens after the famous Serbian river Morava has poured into its bosom another flood. Now, here and there at little towns and villages, among curiously dressed peasants, we sometimes see a few veiled Moslem women wearing the "yashmak," showing only their brows and eyes.

Islands, one ten miles long, look like vast rafts. Some are, however, covered beautifully with trees and flowers. No one would expect that the broad river would yet again be constrained to pass through a tremendous mountain chasm, but we enter on majestic scenery in what is called the Kazan Defile. The Romans conquered it in subduing Dacia, now part of Rumania, and they cut a wonderful military road along the rocky sides of the precipices in the Emperor Trajan's days. These old works are among the engineering wonders of the world and again and again in these parts of the Danube we see the signs of the handiwork of man, especially at the rapids known as the Iron Gates, which are no longer formidable, now that the rocks have been blasted away by the engineers.

Opposite is Kalafat, where we land to take train for Bukarest, the quaint Rumanian capitol, which loves to be called the Little Paris of the Balkans. And on the Bulgarian shore—where again we are in the field of war—is Nikopoli, where new beauties begin, for it is picturesquely situated at the feet of bold cliffs. The river is two miles wide here, and is variegated by islands full of water-birds and by many grotesque pelicans. Here, in 1396, came Sultan Bajazet, the "Thunderbolt," who overran Hungary and threatened all Europe. At Nikopoli he defeated an army of 100,000 men, who had boasted that if the sky should fall they would uphold it with their lances. Most of them were slain or drowned on that dreadful day for Christendom. Bajazet, after his victory, boasted that he would feed his horse on oats on the altar of St. Peter's in Rome, but he himself was soon destroyed by a fit of gout. The Turks, however, were lords of the Danubian provinces, and for many years a Christian traveler attempting to land in these places would be stoned back to his ship. Fine old cities, once Turkish, now adorn the banks of the noble stream, which here becomes like a sea studded with little islands, and at length, past Tomi, where the Latin poet Ovid spent his long years of exile, we are at Costanza, the port on the Black Sea. In St. Mary's Church at Galati, another city, is the tomb of Mazeppa, who died here of poison long after his wild ride naked on the back of a horse, which Lord Byron's poem describes.

Near the Black Sea is the Serpent Island, so called from the hideous jet-black serpents seen here, often coiled together in the sunshine. Formerly it was called White Island from the hosts of white sea-birds living upon it. Here Achilles is said to have been buried, and here stands a temple to his memory. And the fable says that the sea-birds took the shrine under their care, each morning repairing to the sea, dipping their wings in the waves.

Be that as it may, there is poetry in the very air of these sweet places on the Danube, and the traveler who has seen them once will long to go again.

THE HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT, LONDON.

THE STORY OF GREAT BRITAIN

THERE are some stories which are always full of interest, and among them are those that we like to hear when we sit around the hearth, and the dancing firelight plays on the faces of our homemakers.

"Tell us again what you did when you were young, or just one story more about what grandmother did when she was a little girl," is the cry. As the stories flow on—for father and mother love to tell as much as you love to hear—the life of the busy motherland of today, with the hum of its millions of workers, the clang and roar of its workshops and mills, all seems to be forgotten, as we step for awhile into the quiet land of yesterday.

You whose grandparents came from England know the stories? How grandmother, in a large beaver bonnet and silk pelisse, went, when a child, to Ramsgate in a stage-coach; how she slept at Canterbury, because the journey which you now do in two hours took two days. How she and grandfather used to enjoy walking about the sweet green fields and woods, and resting in strawberry gardens near the Crystal Palace or Primrose Hill, where now you see nothing but rows of houses and shops. How grandfather took a whole week in a sailing boat in rough weather to travel from London home to Berwick. If you have a great grandmother who lived long ago near any of those large manufacturing towns or ports that we have visited, such as Glasgow, Liverpool, Manchester, she can tell you stories of how rivers were deepened and widened, and docks built; how villages grew quickly to be large towns; how quiet country lanes became one wide stretch of factories and cinder-heaps, crossed and crossed by railway lines. These stories are as wonderful as those of the magic of the genii who made palaces appear at will. Our genii are steam, and machinery.

We are so accustomed to all the comforts and conveniences in the life of today, with our well-paved, well-kept, and well-lighted streets, cheap and quick means of getting from place

to place and sending messages, that perhaps we are apt to take them all as a matter of course. But it is not so long ago when there were no telephones, no motors, no tubes, no elevators, no telegrams, no electric light, no bicycles no railways, no gas in England. As we listen to the stories of life without all these things, and how they all came to be, we realize how times change, and what a contrast there is between the wonderful world today and the yesterday which ushered it in.

And what about the times before this yesterday? What happened in them? We can fancy the tide round those shores rising and falling day after day, year after year; the wind passing forever over the tree-tops, now gently, now roughly; the sun shining on and on, century after century, lighting up the waters of rivers and lakes and coloring the country sides. But what about the people of the past? We know, in a way, that life has been going on in the British Isles for many years; most likely some great names belonging to them stand out for us. We realize, too, as we look about us or study pictures, that buildings such as Westminster Abbey, the great cathedrals, the Tower, and many now ruined castles and churches were the work of the men of bygone days.

We can piece together the story of these days which are beyond the memory of living men by looking carefully at the work and relics that have come down from them and by reading in books and letters the descriptions of the times in which their writers lived. Often these writers have copied into their books excerpts from the writings of others who lived and wrote long before themselves.

What was happening in England 2000 years ago

By these means we can follow a written history of England back and back for nearly two thousand years; and it is by this written history that we know what happened through the centuries which we mark A. D. These letters stand for Anno Domini, the year of the Lord; we count our years as they pass, from the date of the birth of Christ, more than 1900 years ago.

The years before His birth we mark B. C., before Christ. Now, if you ask how many centuries there were before Christ, this is what no one can tell you. The great earth-ball on which we live has been journeying round the sun—once round makes one year; a hundred times round makes one hundred years, or a century—for thousands of centuries. No one can say how many, for no one knows when the earth first started on the yearly journey, nor when men first appeared on its surface.

Perhaps you may think the twenty centuries which hold England's written history a long enough time to look across, filled as they are with stirring deeds and great changes. But if you wish to peer further back, and ask who were the very first men who lived in the country we must go back through the ages of unknown length to seek them.

When wild men and wild animals walked from England into France

Perhaps you have read how cliffs have been worn away by the sea, a few feet in a year, or you have heard of earthquakes in other parts of the world raising or lowering whole districts; so you can understand that change is always going on in the shape of the land that rises above the sea. Now, the very oldest things found in England are some roughly chipped stone tools, which dropped from the hands of the men who made and used them when the country was not an island but was a part of the continent now called Europe. Wild animals, as well as wild men, could therefore roam

"We might have met on these old roads, the ancient British chieftain with his coat of skin, the Roman passing from fort to fort, the Saxon and the Dane, and the Norman Passing from keep to keep."

about as they pleased, with neither English Channel nor Irish Sea, as they are now called, to stop them. The white cliffs at Dover were joined to those at Calais, and the western parts of what are now the countries of France and Ireland showed an unbroken front to the great western ocean. You can judge of the size and strength of the wild animals who haunted that land by visiting the British Natural History Museum, where you can find those of the huge woolly mammoth elephants, of tigers—one of which has left the mark of his saber tooth on the bones he gnawed—of bears, lions, reindeer.

THE FIRST TOOLS THAT THE FIRST WORKMEN USED

The poor rough tools, shaped like a pear, found in the gravel beds or drift of old rivers, are ranged in numbers round the upper shelves in the Prehistoric Room in the British Museum; it is called prehistoric because the times to which they belong were before written history began. The owners of these tools looked out on the Thames stretching from the heights of Hampstead and Highgate to those of South London.

What became of the Drift men, or the Cave men, who followed, we do not know. The Cave men's tools are better made and in greater variety; there are harpoons to catch fish, arrow-heads to shoot birds, and bone needles to sew skins together, besides the sharp pear-shaped weapons for defense or for hunting.

The most interesting things the Cave men left behind are their drawings and carvings of the animals they saw before them; the great long-haired mammoth as he crashed along, the reindeer fighting, the oxen feeding, are all sketched from nature. Many specimens of these earliest drawings are found in the caves of England and France.

The earth-ball rolled steadily on through space year after year, century after century, and at last, as the ground sank in some places and rose in others, the sea rushed in over the lower levels and formed what is now called the North Sea, the English Channel, and the Irish Sea, and Father Thames shrank to a mere shadow of his former great size. After this men appeared again in England from over the sea now that it was an island; many different tribes followed each other, the newcomers pushing the others northwards and westwards, even across to Ireland and to Scotland.

NECKLACES THAT WERE WORN IN ENGLAND THOUSANDS OF YEARS AGO

As we look back to the far-off times of these settlers we find them very dark. They have left no names, no writing. Perhaps the great stones set up at Stonehenge were used by them as a temple; perhaps they were set up about seventeen centuries before Christ. Seventeen centuries B. C. and twenty centuries A. D. makes thirty-seven centuries—3700 years—ago!

The long and round grave-mounds, called barrows, still to be seen in many parts of the country are also believed to belong to the peoples of these times. In them are found skeletons and burned bones, together with the rougher cups and vessels you can see in the museum below the Drift and Cave men's tools. They are headed "Contents of British barrows." Sometimes a little child had a whole barrow to itself; sometimes many people are buried together. The ornaments, brooches, and necklaces found in them will interest us; also the tools of bronze found often in spots where they are supposed to have been made. In these early metal factories lumps of copper and tin, of which the bronze is made, often lie side by side with old tools to be remelted and made into new ones.

Then there are iron tools which came into use as time went on and fresh people came to settle in various parts.

We get a few scattered beams of light on these times from the visits of some travelers, who came chiefly to look after the tin found in Cornwall and elsewhere.

THE GREAT LIGHT THAT BEGAN TO SHINE ON THESE TIMES

When they reached home they did what many travelers do today; they wrote books about what they had seen. These were copied into other books, and in this way we hear of the barns in which corn was stored, the rich, sweet drink that the natives offered them, and so on. A few centuries later, in the first century B. C., a great light suddenly lit up the country in which we have been groping. By its help we can now see plainly the people who lived in it. They were the children's children of the tribes who settled there from time to time. We call them Britons, and their country is called Britain. Now whence came the light?

Let us take a map and find the Mediterranean Sea—the sea between the lands of Europe and Africa. The nations who lived on the shores of this great sea were very different from the Britons and other tribes living in the islands set in the wild Atlantic. They traded with each other; some were very learned; some produced the most beautiful temples and sculpture, as well as the bravest men, the world has ever seen. They all believed, however, that the part of the world on which they lived round the great sea was the whole of the world. They did not know that the earth is a ball, on which are the great continents of the Old World, as well as those of North and South America in the New. They imagined the earth to be flat, with a great river running around it, and extraordinary were the tales they told of the wild and savage people who lived on the "edge."

THE ROMAN SOLDIERS WHO BROUGHT THE LIGHT TO ENGLAND

These tales they generally made up; but sometimes, as we have seen, travelers went to see for themselves. Their tales were often wonderful, too!

Now, in the century just before the birth of Christ, one of these Mediterranean nations had succeeded in conquering all the others, so that it was master of the whole of the then known world.

This was the Roman nation, and a great Roman soldier and ruler who stands out in this first century B. C. was the light-bearer.

If we study the calm, determined face of Julius Cæsar we shall find out by degrees what made him so strong and so powerful. He could make himself do what he believed to be best, as well as he could control others. He was always at work, conquering and settling his conquests, looking after his soldiers, and yet he found time to write books about his travels, which schoolboys read now when they begin Latin. He gives many particulars about the Britons and their relations, the Gauls, whom he had just conquered. He did not conquer Britain; he visited it with his army two summers running, and described it to the civilized Roman world, who kept it in mind till a hundred years later. Then they were able to send enough soldiers to meet the warriors with faces stained blue to terrify them, to disperse the chariots with scythes on their axles, to take the hill-camps fortified with stakes and logs of wood, and in time to subdue all the country of the plains.

WHEN BRITONS AND ROMANS LIVED SIDE BY SIDE

Little by little, as the soldiers, who had better arms and had been better trained, gained ground, many of the

THE ROMANS AT WORK ON THE WALL THAT KEPT THE PICTS AND SCOTS OUT OF ENGLAND

THE REMAINS OF THE ROMAN WALL ACROSS ENGLAND AS SEEN TODAY IN CUMBERLAND

The Romans, when they ruled in England, 1,800 years ago, built two great walls in England and Scotland to keep out the men who were always fighting with them, and the walls are still to be seen in parts of the North of England. The wall across the North of England stretched 70 miles, from the mouth of the River Tyne to the mouth of the River Solway; the wall in Scotland was smaller, reaching from the Firth of Clyde to the Firth of Forth.

Britons were swept further and further west to the high moors of Cornwall, to the mountains of Wales and Cumberland. It is to these parts we turn, especially to Wales, to find the people whose forefathers were mainly ancient Britons, and to find echoes of the language spoken by them. It was here too, that the old religion of the Britons, with the white-robed Druids, lasted longest.

Scattered all over the country, but chiefly in Wales, we find place-names that come from British words meaning a wood, a rock, a plain, an island, a waterfall, and many others more or less connected with the soil. Numbers of the Britons settled down, as time went on, under their Roman masters, from whom they learned many things. Some helped the soldiers to drain the marshes and cut down trees, and to make the fine roads which crossed the country, and are still a pleasure to use, so well and straight are they laid.

BOADICEA, QUEEN OF ENGLAND, AND THE BRAVE CHIEF CARACTACUS

Two great British names stand out in this first century A. D. The statue of Boadicea, queen of one of the British tribes, now stands on the embankment, by Westminster Bridge. She resisted the Romans, who had treated her very cruelly, with all her might. Caractacus was another great British chief. He not only lost everything in spite of his brave resistance, but was also taken prisoner to Rome with his wife and children. He did not behave at all as a frightened captive, but proudly, as a free-born king, said to the Roman emperor: "You fight to gain the whole world, and to make everybody your slaves. I fought to keep my own land, and for freedom."

For nearly four hundred years Britain was part of the Roman Empire. Great generals like Agricola came to push the conquests even further; he built a line of forts between the Forth and the Clyde to keep out the wild mountaineers of the north. Are you thinking of that deep wide valley as it is today, with coal and iron mines, factories and ports, fine farms, and thousands of workers?

Emperors came and went; you can see their faces in the portrait galleries, and may read their stories of where they stayed, and how they built walls to keep out the fierce Picts and Scots from Scotland and Ireland.

ENGLISH MEMORIES OF THE TIME WHEN THE ROMANS RULED

The remains of the wall between the Solway and the Tyne are still to be seen; a railway runs in that direction now, and the name is preserved in "Wallsend" coal, found at the end of the Roman "vallum." Other Roman names still show where the "castra," or camps, were raised to house the soldiers at Chester, Lancaster, Leicester. A "colony" was settled in Lincoln, and many places are called Street, from their position on or near the great "strata," or roads. Stratford is an example of this.

The thousands of soldiers who came during these centuries from every part of the empire—the British lads were sent just as far away—left many remains on the soil of the country in which they worked so hard. Many of these remains are now in the great museums of the country, especially in the cities founded by the Romans—in London, York, Colchester, Winchester, and Bath. There are the altars they set up to their gods; their weapons and armor; the tablets to show long and faithful service, which gave them their discharge from the army; the memorial stones put up to honor their memories.

Many treasures of money and jewelry, perhaps buried in a hurry when danger arose, and never reclaimed,

have been found among the foundations of cities, along the line of the walls, and on the sites of the beautiful country villas. These were built in the sunniest and healthiest positions generally with a fine view among gardens with fountains and statues.

LONDON LIFE BENEATH THE CITY

We can picture the life in these villas, as we look at the fine pavements, the shoes of the ladies and children, the lamps, writing materials, mirrors, and other treasures found buried among their ruins. Some of the pottery and glass were made in Britain, for the Britons were quick to learn, but most of the finest came through London.

London rose to be an important city in Roman times. Some twenty feet below the pavements of the city of today, so thronged with busy feet, we find the remains of its greatness. The strong walls built for its protection ran, to some extent, on the lines of the Underground Railway. Many stations on that line have the word "gate" in their names—Aldgate, Moorgate, and so on, and from these gates in the walls started the great roads which passed over the country—something like the great main lines of railways at the present time—to connect the city with their stations at Lincoln, York, Chester, Bath, Chichester, and many others. Traders, therefore, found it a convenient spot to bring the goods they had for sale, especially as there was then and for many years after, a short cut for their ships from the Channel by the streams that made the Isle of Thanet really an island.

PIRATES FROM OVER THE SEA CAME TO ENGLAND IN BOATLOADS

Sometime, perhaps in the third century, Romans, as well as Britons, began to give up worshiping the gods of their fathers, and listened to the preaching of Christian missionaries; so there presently arose British churches and bishops. The country improved in many ways—more corn was grown, trade increased, and it seemed as if Roman law and order, and the liking for fine and comfortable lives had all come to stay.

But this was not to be. In Britain itself troubles thickened as the Picts and Scots became more and more daring, and pirates from over the sea landed on the east and south coasts. Year by year, as the spring came round, fresh boatloads landed on the most desirable spots they could find, and took by force whatever they needed. In other parts of the great empire troubles thickened too, as fierce tribes poured over its distant borders and made their way towards the beautiful and wonderful capital itself. The only thing to be done, as the empire grew weaker and weaker, was to give up the most distant provinces and recall the soldiers who held them to defend those nearer its mighty heart.

BRITONS LEFT TO RULE THEMSELVES AFTER ROMANS LOST THEIR POWER

So they had to leave the walls they had built, the cities and camps, with the theaters and baths, the castles—such as those at Richborough and Reculvers, which guarded the way to London when "Thanet was full isled." There must have been many a sad good-by, for often Romans had British wives and relations, and the departure of those who had helped to make the country so prosperous must have sown despair in the hearts of those left behind to cope with the difficulties and dangers as best they might. They had so long been taken care of that they had forgotten how to make plans for themselves and fight together.

Listen to a letter they sent to Rome, asking for soldiers to come back and help them; it is so sad that it is called

"the groans of the Britons." "The barbarians drive us to the sea; the sea drives us back to the barbarians. We are either slain or drowned." Many sad relics of this time are found in the caves, where families took refuge when their homes were destroyed. Thus it was that the light shed over Britain by the presence of the civilized Romans went out as the last boats carried away the last soldiers across the Channel.

The wild Picts and Scots burst over the now undefended wall, and burned what they could not carry away back to the hills; the sea-rovers, who had been coming year after year to settle and stay, came ever thicker and faster. They burned the villas and towns, destroyed the camps, starved London to death because trade was stopped, and provisions could no longer come in by the land and water-gates.

Once more Britons had to flee to the mountains in the west, and those who were left behind became the servants of the heathen newcomers, if they could not manage to stay on their farms as owners.

We want to find out all we can about these newcomers, for it is they who are the forefathers of the English race. Great changes have taken place, as many generations have been born, have lived and died, during the fifteen centuries between their time and ours. But still, as a race, we Anglo-Saxons keep up a family likeness, and in many ways take after our great-great-grandfathers. Many of us are as fair-haired and blue-eyed as they were; we love the sea and adventure, though in a quieter way, as much as they did. Half the words in our language—all the everyday words—come from the speech in which they shouted directions to each other as they shipped their oars and grounded their boats on these shores.

Besides all this, and much more, most of the laws, the ways of governing, the customs, have grown, through the centuries, from those they brought with them, together with the passionate love of freedom which is inherited from their old homes across the North Sea.

THE FOUNDING OF ENGLAND

There were long, cold winters on those flat and sandy shores round the southeast corner of the North Sea, from where the new-comers into England came. The meadows by the marshes, the dark woods behind them, could not afford enough food for the people who lived in the homesteads around; for, as time went on, more and more tribes of the same family of nations pushed nearer to the sea, till all were overcrowded.

So it came to pass each spring, "when the birds began to twitter in the sunshine, and the brooks and rivers ran gaily singing to the sea," that some of the youngest and strongest of the people set out to find new and more roomy homes.

Truly a desperate sight it must have been for the poor "guardian of the shore" in Kent or elsewhere, when the long, narrow boats, with imposing figureheads, came swiftly towards him. In most cases resistance was useless. The tall, strong men, with flowing hair and bronzed faces, glittering swords and shields, leaped ashore one after the other, and before long were masters of some desirable piece of land, if possible near the mouth of a river or in a sheltered bay. Then and there chiefs, such as Alfred or Clapa, or families like the Billings or the Harlings, set up their *ham*, or home, their *ton*, or town, as at Clapham and Alfreton, Billingham and Harlington. We can, by names such as these and

many others—such as *wick*, meaning a village; *staple*, a store—trace their settlements along the shore, up the courses of the rivers, and across the fertile plains. These names are still remembered and are written on the maps today.

The maps also show us, to some extent, where the different tribes of newcomers settled. Although they belonged to the same great family, they bore different names. The Jutes settled in the Isle of Wight and in Kent, which still keeps its name from an old British tribe. Branches of the Saxons, the South, East, and Middle Saxons, made their homes in Sussex, Essex, Middlesex. There was also Wessex of the West Saxons. The Angles took up their abode in East Anglia, the country of the North and South folk—Norfolk and Suffolk; and in Lincolnshire. It was the Angles who in the end gave their name to the whole country, which became Angleland, or England.

The settlement fighting went on for a long time, but gradually the families began to feel at home in their *hams* and their allotments—for which they really cast "lots." In the commons of today, so glorious with golden furze and old white-thorn trees, we can tread, as they did, the piece of land left open and "common" to those settled near it. They had "common rights," as people have now, to gather wood and bracken, and let their animals roam about.

EGBERT, THE FIRST OF THE FIFTY RULERS OF ENGLAND

For some years the country was divided up into several kingdoms, such as Kent, Wessex, Mercia, Northumbria. Often they were bitter enemies; but at last, at the beginning of the ninth century, they all acknowledged one overlord, Egbert. He has been called the first King of England. There have been more than fifty rulers since then.

The shires, or divisions into which the country is cut up, so that each part can govern its own affairs, were formed by degrees in these old times. The word *shire* comes from a word like *shears*, meaning to cut off. Sometimes the shire was one of the old kingdoms, or a part of one. Sometimes it was named after a town of importance, such as Derby-shire.

The family treasures, as one can see in the Anglo-Saxon Room at the British Museum, are dug up from all parts of these shires. In Lincolnshire a railway cutting goes right through a large cemetery. On the breezy downs of the Isle of Wight many warriors were laid to rest, with their weapons and ornaments beside them. Numbers come from Kent. How beautiful those swords and knives must have looked when they were new and bright! It was the mother who gave the weapons to the boy when the time came for him to follow his father to battle or the chase, bidding him keep them till death took them from him.

THE JEWELS OF MOTHERS, NAMES OF CHILDREN, AND HYMNS OF PREACHERS

Those fine necklaces, brooches, rings, gold thread and precious stones from old embroidery, bring to mind those English mothers of long ago. One of them, in an old story told round the hearth, as we tell stories now, earned the title of "faithful peace-weaver." Could anything be better? The beautiful drinking-horns and glasses without stands carry us to the halls where the families rejoiced. The names of the children who wore those small bracelets may well have been Edith or Ethel, for these names, as well as the boys' names of Edgar, Edwin, and Edward, have come down from these times.

ST. AUGUSTINE INTRODUCING CHRISTIANITY TO ETHELBERT, KING OF KENT

ST. AUGUSTINE BAPTIZING THE EARLY ENGLISH

The English people knew nothing about Christianity until long after Christ was born. About the year 600 A.D. a monk, struck by the sad sight of some English boys being sold for slaves in the market-place of Rome, set himself to think out a plan for sending the news of Christianity into the boys' country. He became Pope Gregory the Great, and there are still to be seen in Rome the steps from which he sent Augustine to preach Christianity to the English.

The sculptured stone cross reminds us that missionaries came over from Ireland to preach to the wild north; others came from Rome to the south to persuade men to give up the gods of their forefathers and become Christians. There was a long, fierce struggle before they succeeded. Woden the god of war; Thor, the god of thunder; Freya, the goddess of peace and plenty, are still recalled, as we speak of Wednes-day, Thurs-day, Fri-day.

A fine cross has been put up near Minster, in the Isle of Thanet, to mark the spot where Augustine, the Roman missionary, landed towards the end of the sixth century. Headed by a painted cross and waving banners, he and his clergy set out for Canterbury from here, chanting hymns and prayers as they went. This stone cross is copied from the old ones, some much larger than the one in the museum, set up in Ireland and the north by the missionaries of old to remind their hearers of the Gospel story after they had passed away. Many of these are still to be seen.

EDWIN, THE GREAT KING WHO FOUNDED EDINBURGH, OR EDWIN'S TOWN

The pillow-stones, which were found under the heads of nuns, make one think of the numbers of women, as well as men, who were often thankful to retire, in those rough times, to the quiet of a religious house, to read and write, to think and pray.

Edwin was one of the greatest of the first Christian kings. It was he who founded Edinburgh—Edwin's "burgh," or town. He needed a strong fort to protect the fertile lands to the south of the Forth—the Lothians of today—and to hold the roads from the north. The castle rock between the hills and the sea gave the needed protection to the town which grew up round its base.

About this time arose the first English poet, from a religious house or monastery on the cliffs above Whitby, in Yorkshire, to which he had retired when his great gift of song was discovered.

On the same coast, a little further north, where now is heard the great noise of iron shipbuilding, there lived and died the great scholar and writer Bede, often called the Venerable Bede. He spent his whole life learning and teaching, and translating and writing books for the pupils who gathered round him. His chief work, perhaps, is the history of the Church of the country, which has gained him the title of the first English historian.

THE BOOK OF THE OLD SCHOLAR, BEDE AND THE STORY IT TELLS

There is still a copy of Bede's book to be seen, written in Latin, in one of the cases in the British Museum which contains the manuscripts of earliest English history. Bede's book is open at the page which tells the old story of how Augustine came to be sent to preach to the English. The handsome, fair, blue-eyed boys, being sold for slaves in the market at Rome, attracted the pity of a young monk, afterwards Pope Gregory. He made a joke on their name when it was told him. "Not Angles, but Angels," he said, "they are so beautiful." As soon as he had the power he sent Augustine and a band of missionaries to carry Christianity into the boys' country.

Many another story does Bede tell. He sent all over the country to gather all the information he could, and as one reads the account of his gentle ways and his hard work to the very end of his life, one feels a great love for the saintly man.

But once more dark and bitter times fell upon the land, and learning and peace were again destroyed. Hardly had Egbert of Wessex made himself overlord of the country from the Forth

to the Channel, at the beginning of the ninth century, when sea-rovers poured into it.

How the furious Danes came down upon England

They were even more fierce and wild than the English tribes had been three centuries before. They, too, came in fine boats, often blazing with color, sometimes black as night, with high, carved figureheads, and the dreaded Raven banner at the mast. They came across the North Sea, like the Jutes, and Saxons, and Angles. Their homes were in the lowlands of Denmark, in Sweden, and along the jagged coast of Norway. All were of the same stock—Danes; North, or Norse, men; Vikings, or men of the creeks. "From the fury of the Northmen, good Lord deliver us!" was the prayer of the Christians they attacked. All the Northmen particularly hated and despised the religion which had taken the place of the old one to which they fiercely clung. So over the stricken land flames went up from the monasteries and churches, and those who had sought refuge in them were slain. Caedmon's haven of rest at Whitby was not spared, nor Bede's at Yarrow, nor the beautiful abbey on the little island of Lindisfarne, where Columba and Aidan, missionaries from the West, had lived. London was burned, and the whole country plundered.

In the midst of all this, towards the end of the ninth century, there uprose one of the noblest of the English kings, Alfred the Great, the Truth-teller, the Wise. His titles and the very stories about his good nature, bravery, and industry which have been handed down to our times show how beloved he was by his subjects—a thousand years ago. When he first became king the Danes were quiet for awhile, and he made good use of this peaceful time to build ships to prevent the sea-rovers landing. This was the beginning of the English Navy. He also did his best to get the country into order, and soldiers trained to fight.

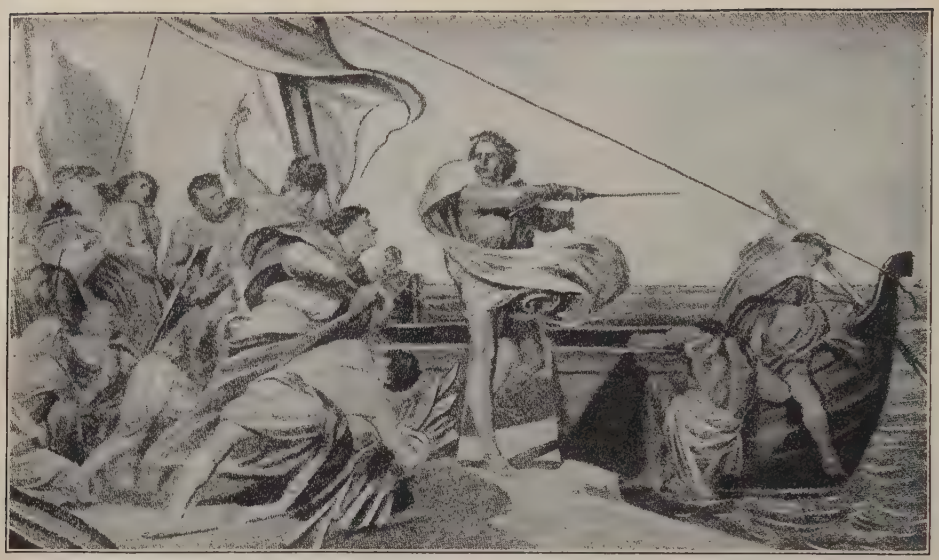
The story of the troubled life of King Alfred the Great

For a time after the return of the Danes things went against Alfred, and he had to hide. He hid one day in a swineherd's cottage where the swineherd's wife was making cakes. Not knowing the king, she let him sit by the hearth mending his bow and arrow if he would promise to see that the cakes did not burn while she was out. By the blazing red fire on the hearth sat the young king, deep in anxious thought—so deep in thought that he did not notice the strong smell of the cakes as they burned to cinders. It was rather provoking for the housewife, and, not knowing to whom she was speaking, she scolded the king severely for letting her cakes burn.

Another story is of his venturing alone, disguised as a singer, into the Danish camp night after night, to find out their plans. Soon after this he won a great victory, and the treaty or arrangements which followed gave peace for many years. In his wisdom he saw that the country would be ruined unless fighting could be stopped; and though he was quite a young man, he gave up any hopes he may well have had of getting all the country for himself, and arranged to share it with the Danes. The part which the Danes had was called the Dane law, because there the people lived under Danish, not Saxon, laws. Part of the boundary was the old Roman road which ran through London to Chester, called Watling Street.

How Alfred helped the people to make the nation great

It was not long before Alfred made his half kingdom stronger than the



ALFRED APPEALING TO THE PEOPLE TO DRIVE THE DANES OUT OF ENGLAND

THE ANGRY HOUSEWIFE SCOLDING THE UNKNOWN KING FOR LETTING HER CAKES BURN

In the midst of the misery and trouble of the English people caused by the fighting Danes, there rose one of the noblest of English kings, Alfred the Great. But he had a troubled life, and at times had to hide from his enemies, once in a swineherd's cottage. The housewife let him mend his bow by the fire if he would promise to see that her cakes did not burn. But Alfred was too deep in thought to notice the cakes, and was scolded severely by the housewife, not knowing to whom she was speaking, when she came back to find them like cinders.

HOW SALISBURY LIES IN THE PLAIN—WHERE THE CONQUEROR ASSEMBLED HIS BARONS

THE ROAD INTO DORCHESTER, THE SCENE OF TWO THOUSAND YEARS OF ENGLISH HISTORY

HOW WINCHESTER LIES IN THE HILLS—THE CAPITAL OF ALFRED'S ENGLAND

whole one had been before his time. He improved his army and built up forts. Then he turned his mind to making good laws with the advice of the assembly of wise men who helped him to rule the country, somewhat in the way that Parliament helps England's sovereigns to rule now. Next he did all he could to teach his people. Since the Danes had destroyed the monasteries there was great ignorance everywhere, for the monasteries had been really schools in which people learned to read and write English and Latin, which was so necessary in those times.

So Alfred called together learned men from other countries—they all understood Latin—and they wrote and translated and taught as hard as they could. Alfred himself worked with them. In his youth his mother had given him a beautiful book as a prize for learning to read quickly, and he continued to study all his life. Some think that it was he who started the first history of England in English, called the Anglo-Saxon or English Chronicle. There is a copy of it in the British Museum, where there is also a famous jewel, with the words written on it "Alfred had me made." He had all the information collected that could be found about older times than his, and then added the story of his reign.

ENGLAND AFTER ALFRED'S DEATH, AND THE SPREAD OF CHRISTIANITY

After his death more was added to this, giving the history of the years as they passed for nearly three centuries. Alfred's work was carried on by his son and a brave daughter and three grandsons, and for a time it seemed as if the Danes were going to settle down as a part of the English nation without further trouble. We can today see on the map where they settled by the place-names. Where the English said *tun* or *ton* for town, the Danes said *by*, and so is derived Whitby, Derby, and Appleby. Many other parts of names are Danish too, such as *toft*, meaning an enclosure, as in Lowestoft; *scar*, a cliff, as in Scarborough. The long Danish swords in the Anglo-Saxon Room at the British Museum remind one of the way in which they swung them around in battle; and the combs recall the flowing hair for which they were so famous.

In a corner of the Anglo-Saxon Room are also relics which take us across the Irish Channel, to the land of those missionaries preaching in the North of England. As we have already seen, when Christianity was preached to the Britons in the time of the Romans, the new faith spread to Ireland, and flourished there exceedingly when the heathen Angles and Saxons had stamped it out in Britain. Churches and monasteries were built everywhere—as the number of beautiful ruins in Ireland testify to this day—and many people crowded into the only refuges there were in those rough times.

THE PATIENT WORK OF THE MONKS AND THE MISSIONARIES

The country was divided into separate kingdoms, as it was in England before Egbert. Fierce fighting went on among them for many a day. What a contrast there is between this state of things and the peace of the monasteries, in which were gathered learned men from all parts! The fame of the beautifully painted manuscripts from these monasteries spread abroad, and other arts that filled up the long days were working in metal and ivory and stone.

The missionaries who poured over the narrow straits near the Giant's Causeway, as the wild tribes of the Scots had done before them, found as beautiful a country as the one they had

left in the Western Highlands, but it was wild and waste land they had often to pass over in Northumbria.

You will remember that Roman Britain stretched as far north as Agricola's forts between the firths of the Forth and Clyde, and that later the kingdom of Northumbria, under Edwin, the founder of Edinburgh, also reached as far. The tribes that for long had fought together north of this were united at last under a king called Kenneth, in the first part of the tenth century.

Scotland, too, in Kenneth's time, suffered much from the Northmen, who poured out of their creeks or firths of Scotland. Right round the coast they went, taking the Shetlands, the Orkneys, and Hebrides, the rocky head of Scotland north of Glenmore, on their way down to the Isle of Man. Many traces of their rule still remain.

EDGAR THE PEACEFUL KING, ETHELRED, THE UNREADY, AND CANUTE THE DANE

The name of Edgar stands out in the same century as Kenneth's. He was called the Peaceful King, which shows that he lived on good terms with his neighbors, even if the story is not true about six kings rowing him on the River Dee.

In the time of his son, Ethelred, called the Unready, because he would take no man's "rede," or counsel, fresh bands of Danes appeared in England. Ethelred, at his wits' end, paid them money to go away, which they did; but they soon came back again for more. Matters became worse and worse, and so Ethelred fled away over the Channel to Normandy to his wife's relations. And so Canute, the Danish king, who also ruled Norway, added England to his empire.

Canute was a good king in the end, and the country settled down for a time in peace. It was he who gave up to the Scottish king the land between the Forth and the Cheviots. For many centuries these hills remained the border between the two countries, with a wide road on the east by Berwick-on-Tweed, and a narrow one on the west by the marshy ground near Carlisle. Along these roads the east and west railway routes to the north pass today.

THE SMALL BEGINNINGS OF NORMAN INFLUENCE IN ENGLAND

Now when bands of Northmen were plundering and wasting England and Scotland, others went to the northern shores of what is now France, then the land of the Franks—formerly Cæsar's Gaul—and settled there in the reign of Alfred. They gained the whole of the beautiful province called after them—Normandy, the land of the Northmen. They very soon left off speaking their own language, and learned that of the Franks, which is called Norman-French.

These men were bold and fierce, and they determined to take and keep all that came in their way. Their rulers were called dukes. Emma, the wife of Ethelred the Unready, was the daughter, of one called Richard the Fearless. Her son, Edward, was brought up in Normandy, after the family fled from England on account of the Danes, and as he grew up in a monastery he cared more for a quiet, learned life, and for attending services in church, than for fighting or looking after business.

So when the English had had enough of Danish kings—there were only three of them—and Edward was called back to be king, he was not at all fitted to take part in the stirring, anxious times in his fatherland, and caused much discontent by favoring the Normans he brought with him.

EDWARD THE CONFESSOR, THE GENTLE KING WHO BUILT WESTMINSTER ABBEY

An English nobleman, Earl Godwin, kept him for a time in some measure

THE INVASION OF WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR

THE FIRST MEETING OF HAROLD AND DUKE WILLIAM OF NORMANDY

HAROLD PROMISES THE CROWN TO WILLIAM, SWEARING TO BE TRUE TO HIM

THE CROWNING OF HAROLD AS KING, AFTER THE DEATH OF EDWARD THE CONFESSOR

DUKE WILLIAM OF NORMANDY, WHILE HUNTING, RECEIVES NEWS OF HAROLD'S CORONATION

When Edward the Confessor died, in January, 1066, and was buried in the beautiful Westminster Abbey which he built, Harold was chosen King of England. When Duke William of Normandy heard this, as he was hunting at Rouen, he was angry, and said that both Edward and Harold had promised him the kingdom—which nobody could really promise, because it was the people's right to choose their king. William went over to England with an army and a fleet, and a great battle was fought at Hastings, where Harold was killed and the bravest men of England fell around him. William had conquered, and from that day began new times for England.

to his duty. Edward's greatest pleasure was in building churches, and the most beautiful one of all was that of the Abbey at Westminster, built after the pattern of those he knew and loved so well in Normandy, with rounded windows and arches. This abbey church at Westminster has been entirely rebuilt by later kings.

It is said that Edward promised his cousin, William of Normandy, that he should be King of England at his death; in any case William determined that King of England he would be. The gentle, white-haired, rosy-faced king—the Confessor, as he was afterwards called—died in January, 1066. He was buried in his fine new church, finished only a few days before. Later a beautiful tomb was raised over him, which one can see today in its present place in the heart of the Abbey.

Now the year 1066, which opened with the king's death was an important year for England, full of stirring history. The day after the weeping people had crowded the Abbey to see the funeral of Edward, they came back again to crown the successor whom they had chosen—Harold, the son of Earl Godwin, whom they knew to be brave and wise, and a hater of the Normans.

And so, on that bright sunny day, in the keen north wind of January, the roof rang again with joyful shouts of "Yea!" when the old archbishop asked if they would have Harold for king.

WILLIAM OF NORMANDY COMES TO ENGLAND IN A FURIOUS TEMPER

When William heard that Harold had become king after Edward, he was furious, and at once set to work to get an army and a fleet together to invade England and secure the crown he longed for. He said Harold had promised him the kingdom as well as Edward; but no one could really promise this, because it was the people's right to choose whom they would have.

When William landed near Hastings, on the south coast, in the bright September weather, Harold was at York. He marched his army down south by the great Roman road to London in nine days, which was quick time, when so many had to go on foot.

The battle that followed at Hastings is one of the great battles of history. The Normans were led out by a singer on a fine prancing horse, and the whole army caught up his song about the great hero of France and how he fought and won. The English did their best, but the Normans were too strong for them. Harold was killed, and the bravest and best men of England fell fighting around him. This was on Saturday, October 15th, 1066.

THE LONELY CROWNING OF WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR

By December William had forced the people of the south to own him as king, and he was crowned in Westminster Abbey on Christmas Day. No shouts of welcome, no bright faces, and when the question was asked, "Do you take William of Normandy to be your king?" there was but a sullen mutter; they had to say "Yes." William was almost alone on this great day.

Freedom for England was gone. The knights were killed, the poor were in utter misery. William gave much land and goods to his Norman followers, and, instead of paying rent in money, they had to promise to supply him with fighting men when he went to war. They made the men to whom they let land promise to do the same.

This feudal system, as it was called, lasted for many years in England. So that there should be no doubt how

much land everyone had, and how many soldiers it was worth William had a great book prepared, Domesday Book, in which is a description of all the great houses and estates in the kingdom. That book is still of great use.

THE WORK THAT THE CONQUEROR DID FOR ENGLAND

Another work of William's which lasts to this day was the making of the New Forest, in Hampshire. William made it to hunt in, and sorely distressed the poor folk who were turned out of their homes for his pleasure.

Some of the great castles William built to keep the English in order are still standing. Chief among them is the old part of the Tower of London, in which is a most perfect Norman chapel. It is said that from the gallery of this chapel William the Conqueror and his family looked down on the service going on below.

William spent a good deal of his time in Normandy, and at last died there. His sons behaved very poorly to him, and he was alone in his death as he was at his coronation, when all but a few priests rushed out to join in the tumult going on outside Westminister Abbey.

After the death of the Conqueror there was still fighting for the crown. He was succeeded by his son William Rufus who in turn was succeeded by Henry I, Stephen, and Henry II.

FIGHTING FOR THE CROWN

WHEN Prince Edward left England, and his old father, Henry III, to go and fight in the Crusade, his young wife Eleanor, pleaded to go with him. It was in vain that he told her how dangerous the journey was; she only answered that "the way to heaven is as near from Palestine as from England." So the Princess Eleanor had her way; and the story goes that she was able to save her husband's life.

It was Edward who prepared the splendid double tomb of marble for his father, once sparkling with gold and jewels, but now so dusty and gray, close by Edward the Confessor's shrine in Westminster Abbey. He also carried on his father's work by pulling down more of the old Norman Abbey, and building it up again in the new style. Edward made many good laws, and arranged different courts to deal with the various matters of government. Early in his reign he had bitter fighting with the Welsh. The Britons, had found shelter long before among the beautiful hills in the west from both Romans and Saxons; and their children's children defied all attempts to join their land to England.

The English lords who lived on the borderland had great difficulty in preventing the Welsh from carrying off their possessions, and followed them when they could, back to their hills to punish them.

But Edward was wise and determined, and in the end succeeded in becoming master of the country, so that at last he was able to hang up before the shrine of his namesake, Edward the Confessor, the crown of Llewellyn, the last Welsh prince.

When the nobles came to pay homage to Edward, he promised to give them a prince as ruler, born in Wales, who could neither speak French nor English. He then brought out his little son, born at Carnarvon Castle a few days before! Ever since, the king's eldest son has been Prince of Wales.

HOW EDWARD THE FIRST TRIED TO UNITE ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND

Edward's great wish was to rule over the whole island of Great Britain, as it had been that of Henry II, before

him. He wanted the Scottish king to do homage for all his kingdom, but the Scottish steadily refused.

To try to make the kingdoms one by peaceful means, Edward proposed to marry his son to the Maid of Norway, whose mother was the daughter of a Scotch king. But the little girl, Margaret, the last of her family, died on her way across the stormy North Sea. If she had lived, it might have saved much misery during the years that followed, when Scotland was helped by France to resist England, and war was going on in one of the three countries.

Disputes soon arose as to who should rule in Scotland after Margaret died, and Edward claimed the right of settling them. Naturally, the Scotch did not agree to this, and fought hard to get their own way. In the course of ten years Edward made three conquests in Scotland. Many of the battles were fought near that narrow part of Scotland between the Forth and Clyde.

THE QUEEN FROM NORWAY WHOSE MONUMENT STANDS AT CHARING CROSS

The same year that the Maid of Norway died, Edward lost his beloved queen Eleanor. To mark his grief, and the honor in which he held her, he built crosses wherever her body rested on its way from Nottinghamshire to Westminster Abbey. Green fields and a few country houses were its surroundings then; now it lies in the midst of London, where myriads of hurrying feet pass to and fro by the great railway station at Charing Cross. Edward raised a beautiful tomb for his queen at his father's feet. His own, on the other side of his father, is a large, plain one.

A few feet from where he lies is the ancient coronation chair made by him to enclose the famous stone that he brought from Scotland, on which the kings of that country had been crowned for centuries. Edward's chair was painted and decorated with false jewels when new. Now it looks dull and worn, but is covered with cloth-of-gold when moved out before the altar for a sovereign of England to be crowned in it. Round the stone run these words, engraved upon it:

> If fates go right, where'er this stone is found,
> The Scots shall monarchs of that realm be crowned.

We shall see later how and when these words came true, but it was not till Edward I had laid down his sword for three hundred years.

ROBERT BRUCE, THE HERO-KING OF SCOTLAND, AND THE GREAT FIGHT HE WON

The chief battle in the reign of the son of Edward I was fought at Bannockburn, within sight of Stirling. It was a wonderful day. Robert Bruce, the hero-king of Scotland, rode up and down on his brown pony—a battle-axe in his hand, a gold crown on his head—encouraging his soldiers, whom he had arranged in the best possible way. Robert had not half as many men as Edward, but before night fell the Scotch were free again; and Edward II left so much treasure behind that the Scotch became rich as well as free in one day.

Edward II ruled so badly that he was made to give up the crown, and his son of fourteen was chosen king in his place. He was Edward III.

A great deal happened during the fifty years of his reign. He began by marrying Philippa when only fifteen.

Her husband was away a great deal, for wars with Scotland and France were incessant. He invaded Scotland again and again, and succeeded to a certain extent, till France helped the Scots. Then troubles broke out in that country, as Edward claimed to be the rightful king of France.

THE GREAT BATTLE AT CRESSY, WHERE GUNPOWDER WAS FIRST USED

Later followed the great battle of Cressy, in France, fought amid thunder and lightning, torrents of rain, and an eclipse of the sun. It is said that the English had four cannon with them, and that this was the first time gunpowder was used in battle. The arrows of the English fell fast and thick; the men who came to help the French fell back, and soon all was in confusion. Edward's eldest son—barely sixteen—led in the fight, and won the spurs of a knight that day.

Perhaps you know the three feathers, with the German motto below, "I serve," used as a crest by the Prince of Wales? It was this "Black Prince," so called from the color of his armor, who took this crest to put on his shield at the battle of Cressy. It had belonged to the brave and blind old King of Bohemia, who cried, "I pray and beseech you to lead me so far into the fight that I may strike one good blow with this sword of mine." He was found dead on the field.

HOW QUEEN PHILIPPA SAVED THE SIX BRAVE MEN OF CALAIS

Then for nearly a year Edward tried to take the town of Calais. Kent has been called the window which looks out on Europe; and Calais has been called the door into France. Little wooden houses were built all round the town for the soldiers, and no one could pass food through. At last the people were starving, and had to give in to the English.

Edward said that six of the men of Calais must come and give their lives, and then he would let the rest go free. So one after another brave man offered to go, and the six came to Edward with ropes round their necks. Edward would not listen at first when asked to spare them, but shouted, "Call the headsman! They of Calais have made so many of my men die that they must die themselves."

Then Queen Philippa herself knelt before the angry king, and with tears raining down her face, said to him, "Ah, gentle sire, from the day I passed over sea in great danger I have asked you nothing. Now I pray and beseech you with folded hands, for the love of Christ to have mercy on them."

The king kept silence for awhile, then his heart softened, and he put the ropes of the six citizens into her hands. How happy Philippa must have been, as she cared for them before they went away!

THE MISERY OF THE PEOPLE AND THE HONOR OF A CAPTIVE KING

But the unhappy war went on. Hundreds of soldiers crossed the Channel, to die away from home. Presently it became difficult to find enough men to till the fields, and there was a great deal of poverty and discontent everywhere. A terrible sickness, too, called the Black Death, swept over the country, till nearly half the people died. The rich people did all they could to keep wages low.

The state of France was just as miserable, with land uncultivated and towns in ruins, for people were driven away from their homes, and many of their goods were taken by English soldiers.

After the next great battle, Poitiers, the Black Prince, took the French king prisoner. The story is told that the captive was mounted on a fine white horse, while the prince rode beside him on a pony, and that he stood respectfully behind his chair at table.

The king went home to try to collect the enormous sum asked for his ransom, and, being unsuccessful, came back, for he was an honorable man, to end his days in England.

CHAUCER, THE GREAT POET, AND WYCLIF, THE GREAT REFORMER

The father of English poetry—Chaucer—lived in Edward's reign and that of his successor. You can see his tomb in Poet's Corner in the Abbey. His English is difficult to read, because the language has changed so much since those days.

The great reformer Wyclif lived also in the fourteenth century. He has been called the first Protestant, because he dared to protest or speak against what he believed to be wrong. He directed the translation of the whole Bible into English.

You can see this "first complete Bible in the English language" among the manuscripts of the Bible in the British Museum, and you will notice that it belonged to Thomas, the youngest son of Edward III. He was the only one of all their children, says Froissart, who was present when Philippa died. Holding the king's hand in hers, she told him her last wishes, asking that "when it should please God to call you hence, you will not choose any other grave than mine, and that you will lie beside me in the Abbey of Westminster." So there they lie, near the Confessor's shrine, Philippa's tomb opposite that of Eleanor, her husband's opposite that of Henry III.

THE TROUBLED LAND IN WHICH A CHILD WAS KING

Round Edward's tomb were little statues of his twelve children, but only six are left. From those of the Black Prince and Lionel Duke of Clarence we can gather the ordinary costume of gentlemen of that day. They wore long, outside cloaks, and tight-fitting jackets with belts beneath. It was Lionel who was sent to Ireland to try to bring more of the country under English rule, but he met with but little success. English laws and customs were to be set up round about Dublin, in a district called the English Pale, but beyond that the Irish were to be left to themselves.

The son of the Black Prince, Richard II, followed his grandfather. He was only ten when he came to the throne, and an old poem describing the times quotes the words with sorrow, "Woe to the land when the king is a child."

The great nobles, especially the king's uncles, were always quarreling, and the peasants who worked on the land could bear their poverty and hardships no longer, but at last broke into open revolt, marching to London, breaking into parks, and burning and sacking houses.

RICHARD, THE BOY KING, WHO PLACED HIMSELF AT THE HEAD OF THE MOB

Richard, when a boy of fifteen, showed great courage in meeting a mob of rioters, and placed himself at their head when the leader, Wat Tyler, was struck down. Springing to the front, he cried, "I will be your leader!" But the promises he gave were broken, and the poor folk were none the better off.

Richard did a great deal towards making Ireland more peaceful, but the improvement did not last. He made his own people angry by trying to govern without parliament, and at last, after many troubles, he was forced to resign his crown, as Edward II had done before him.

His first cousin became king after him—Henry IV. As Henry IV had no real right to the throne, he was constantly in dread of losing it, and found it difficult to keep order in England and Wales. Scotland was afraid to do much against him, because their prince James—afterwards James I—was a prisoner in England.

When this boy James was about nine years old, his father sent him to France to be educated, and to be out of harm's way. His ship fell into the hands of

Henry IV, who said, "His father should have sent him to me. I can teach him French as well as the King of France."

PRINCE HAL, WHO WON A GREAT BATTLE AT AGINCOURT

The Prince of Wales was soon to follow his father as Henry V. As soon as he became king, his great ambition showed itself; he wanted to be King of France as well as of England. He had no right to be so, but gathered a large force and crossed the Channel, and in the face of great difficulties won a victory at Agincourt.

HOW HENRY DIED AND A BABY KING WAS CROWNED WITH A BRACELET

But all Henry's plans came to a sudden end. He was a good soldier, was wise, and seemed born to do great things; but he died when only thirty-five, leaving a little son of nine months as his heir. He was crowned on his mother's lap, with her bracelet, it is said, as a crown for his baby head.

Henry died near Paris, a long way from the coast, and the funeral procession went by Rouen at a slow pace in great state, Katherine, a widow at twenty-one, following in deep grief.

THE BRAVE GIRL WITH A WHITE BANNER, WHO WAS BURNED TO DEATH

Henry VI had a long reign. First his uncles governed for him, and during this time the English lost what hold they had on France. This was chiefly through the efforts of a young French girl, called Joan of Arc, who was bitterly sorry for the miseries of her country, and longed to drive the English out, and to see her own king upon his throne. So she dressed herself in shining armor, and rode at the head of an army, with a great white banner, cheering on the soldiers. At last she succeeded in leading them to victory. She was afterwards betrayed into the hands of the English, who burned her to death.

The Wars of the Roses now began, and lasted for thirty years. The eleven battles which took place during this time were fought between the king and the nobles, up and down the country—near London, on the line of the old Roman wall, in the dales of Yorkshire; and all brought woe and suffering to the country. These wars were called the Wars of the Roses because those on the side of Henry VI and the Family of Lancaster chose a red rose for their badge, and those who were for the House of York chose a white one.

THE END OF THE GREAT WAR FOR THE CROWN OF ENGLAND

In the end, nearly all the great nobles who had begun the war were killed, either in battle or by execution, as first one side and then the other gained the upper hand. At last Henry VI died miserably in the Tower.

Henry was too weak to control others and to govern in such troubled times, but he was fond of scholars and teachers and books and pictures of all kinds. He founded the great school at Eton, and King's College at Cambridge. His wife, Margaret of Anjou, did her best to help him keep the kingdom, so that their son might have it after him; but the poor lad was killed, and the queen, after being in prison for some time, had to escape from the country and flee to France.

The wife of Edward IV had many sorrows, too. At one time her husband had to leave England in great haste to avoid being taken by the Red Rose party, and she and her daughters had to leave the Tower, where they were living, and go to a safe refuge at Westminster. Here her eldest son was born.

When Edward IV died, his son of thirteen was the next king, but the boy was never crowned, being hurried off to the Tower by his uncle Richard, who soon managed to get his little

brother into his power, too. They both disappeared—it is believed that Richard had them killed in the Tower.

How the King Shocked the People and United the Nobles

He now became king himself, as Richard III and tried to please the people by calling Parliament together. He also did a good deal for trade and to make it easy for people to produce books. But all were so horrified at the death of the little princes that they turned against him, and in the battle of Bosworth Field, which followed, Richard was killed, and Henry Tudor, of the family of Lancaster, was made king, as Henry VII.

He married the eldest daugnter of Edward IV, and so the two Houses of York and Lancaster were united at last, the red and white roses mingling in one double flower, the Tudor rose.

THE AGE OF PAGEANTRY

WE now seem to pass into a new England. The lilies of France and the lions of England remind us of the long connection and long struggles of the two countries. The crown on a bush recalls the story of Henry's hasty coronation on the battlefield of Bosworth, where Richard died in the thickest of the fight, and his crown was found hanging on a hawthorn tree. The Tudor roses are everywhere, formed of red and white roses, badges of the two parties in the long civil wars. The old feudal barons, who used to sally forth from castles shut in by moats and gates to put themselves at the head of their knights and servants, were nearly all killed off in battle during the Wars of the Roses.

The nobles who rose in their stead built themselves open country houses, surrounded by parks and gardens which are still among the chief beauties of England.

The old barons, though some were bad and violent, had done a great work for their country. It was they who wrung from the kings charter after charter, promising justice, good laws, and just government for the people.

It was they, too, who insisted on the kings calling Parliaments to make the laws, and to decide what money should be paid in taxes, and how it should be spent.

The Tudor Kings Who Stopped the Growth of Freedom

When the order of strong old nobles was laid low, the new ones owed so much to the Tudor kings that they did not dare to resist them at first, and, as the character of this family was strong and determined, the growth of freedom was stopped for many years.

Henry VII, was grasping about money; he needed it badly, and made people angry and discontented by the way he forced it from them. He had a hard task to set England straight and to keep it at peace. He saw that nothing could improve if other wars were undertaken. So he tried to quiet Scotland and Spain by marrying his children into their royal families. He little thought how far-reaching the results of these marriages would be. His daughter Margaret, named after her grandmother, was married to James IV, of Scotland, and his eldest son, who died young, to a Spanish princess, Catherine of Aragon.

A New King and His Famous Prime Minister, Thomas, Cardinal Wolsey

It was Margaret's descendants who were finally to sit on the throne of England and join the Scotch and English into one kingdom.

Meanwhile, the old king, Henry VII, died, and his son succeeded him as Henry VIII. (He married, at nineteen, the young widow of his older

MORRIS DANCERS, STRATFORD-ON-AVON

The morris is one of the oldest English dances, reminiscent of the days of Robin Hood and his merry men. The dance is distinct from the Mummers' Play, though the same rustic performers may undertake both dance and masque.

READING THE LAWS, ISLE OF MAN

Tynwald Hill is an artificial mound of earth, about two-and-a-half miles from Peel. There the Deemsters read the laws, first in Manx, then in English, and no law is of force in the island till it has been read from Tynwald Hill.

brother.) But the real ruler of England was the Prime Minister, Cardinal Wolsey.

HENRY VIII GIVES UP HIS WIFE AND HIS GREAT COUNSELOR WOLSEY

When Henry VIII, became tired of Catherine of Aragon, he wanted the Pope to say that she was not really his wife, because she had been his brother's wife first. This the Pope refused to say, and at last Henry made up his mind not to consider the Pope as the head of the Church any longer, but made Parliament declare himself to be the head, so that he could do as he liked. But Wolsey was against his marrying Anne Boleyn. Henry, in anger, took Wolsey's high offices from him, and he died in sorrow and disgrace. Shakespeare has written of him in a great play, and has reminded us that some of Wolsey's last words are said to have been these: "Had I but served my God as diligently as I have served the king, He would not have given me over in my gray hairs."

Thomas Cromwell was the next favorite of the king, and for ten years helped Henry to sweep away the old freedom of the country. People were made to pay taxes as the king and Cromwell chose; these two made what laws they pleased, and imprisoned anyone they wished; they even beheaded some of the noblest of the land who dared to oppose them.

HOW SIR THOMAS MORE WENT TO HIS DOOM IN THE TOWER

Sir Thomas More was one of the greatest Englishmen of the day, and for a time a close friend of the king. Henry used to walk with him in his garden by the riverside at Chelsea. Other friends loved to visit him there, too, and talk of the new learning and of the book More had written, trying to show how best to help the country and teach the people. But there came a time when he could no longer walk familiarly with the king; he felt it impossible to say that he thought it right that he should have married Anne Boleyn. So he was sent his way to the Tower where he was beheaded.

THE MONASTERIES THAT SHELTERED THE SCHOLARS IN STORMY TIMES

The monasteries gave homes to the poor scholars, entertained travellers and looked after the poor. But because some of the monks were lazy and bad, this was made an excuse to shut up all their houses and take away the estates and other property that belonged to them. Henry gave some of this wealth to his friends; some was spent in founding new bishoprics; some went to build schools and colleges and ships.

In the midst of all this scene of change, Henry's son, Edward, was born at Hampton Court, the beautiful palace which once belonged to Wolsey. Edward's mother, Jane Seymour, died soon after he was born. After this Thomas Cromwell displeased Henry, and was sent to prison and beheaded. Great efforts were made in the time of Henry VIII, to subdue the rebellious lords in Ireland and to make the people obey English laws, and even alter their customs and religion to order. This they hated doing, and discontent smouldered on in the island.

Edward succeeded his father when he was nine, being crowned by Archbishop Cranmer, who arranged the Book of Common Prayer much in the same order as it is today.

As Edward was too young to govern by himself, the affairs of the country were managed by his guardians. There was much distress in the country, for the people had not enough work, and they missed the help they had had from the monasteries. Much more of the land was now used for grazing sheep, as the new owners wanted to get rich by selling the wool. When the

THE TOWER OF LONDON

land was tilled, many more people could find work. Another trouble was that the new landlords enclosed some of the old commons, where the people had had rights ever since the days of the Saxons. They felt this terribly, and in many places there were riots.

THE FIRST BLUECOAT BOYS WHO WALKED THE STREETS OF ENGLAND

The Bluecoat School was founded by Edward VI, and many other schools all over the country. The long coats, bands, and yellow stockings were the ordinary boy's dress in this reign. Edward's health became worse and worse. When the ships of Willoughby and Chancellor were towed down the Thames on their way to open up trade with Russia at Archangel, the courtiers rushed out of the palace at Greenwich to see them pass and to receive the salutes of the sailors in "sky-colored cloth."

Edward heard the cannon from his bed, and when Chancellor returned it was his sister Mary who received him and his sailors as Queen of England.

TRAFALGAR SQUARE, LONDON
This is one of the most conspicuous squares in London. (Nelson monument in the center.)

THE SAD FIGURE OF LADY JANE GREY, AND THE COMING OF MARY

Edward had been persuaded to make a will leaving the kingdom to his cousin, Lady Jane Grey, who was a Protestant. The rightful heir, Mary, clung earnestly to the old ways. Poor Jane had no wish to be queen; she was forced into it. Her short reign was passed in the Tower, where she and her young husband were afterwards beheaded.

Mary's girlhood had been sad and lonely, and after she became queen she had the sorrow of being married to a husband, Philip of Spain, whom she loved, but who cared nothing for her. He spent but little time in the country, but could persuade Mary to do anything he pleased. Together they did all they could to stop the progress of the Reformation and to bring England back again under the power of the Pope.

How the English Parliament Knelt Down to be Pardoned by the Pope

Mary's cousin, Reginald Pole, in the red dress and hat of a cardinal, was sent by the Pope to receive submission of England. The whole Parliament at Westminster knelt down to receive from him the Pope's pardon for what had happened in the reigns of Henry VIII, and his son.

Numbers of men and women, and even the Archbishop Cranmer himself, were burned to death because they dared to keep to what they believed to be right in religion, and refused to change at the bidding of those in power.

In the midst of all this misery England lost Calais, called then "the brightest jewel in the English Crown." It was the last of the British possessions in France, and the loss was a heavy blow to the country and to Mary, who died soon afterwards.

Queen Elizabeth, who Loved Fine Clothes and Fine Learning

What grand clothes, huge sleeves, and uncomfortable upstanding ruffs Queen Elizabeth wore! What a wealth of blazing jewels, chains, and ornaments! What a hair-dressing! One can well believe the stories of the numbers of dresses she possessed, and the time and thought spent on her toilet.

Elizabeth's learning and love for books were as remarkable as her love of fine clothes. Among the Royal Books is one of prayers composed in English by Elizabeth's stepmother, Queen Catharine Parr. This book is translated by Elizabeth into Latin, French, and Italian, all written in her own hand when she was fifteen. Later she replied in Greek to the addresses at the universities, and appreciated to the full the writings of the men who made her reign so great and famous.

There are beautiful houses still standing where Elizabeth made merry with her court, for she delighted in going about to pay visits. Can you fancy the rush of countryfolk to see the gay party pass? For the gentlemen wore clothes as smart as the ladies, and the coaches were gilded and painted and the horses had fine trappings. No wonder these "progresses" helped the people to know and like their gay young queen. It is said that Shakespeare came from his home near by, and saw the acting and shows that went on for days.

The queen had to face great difficulties all through her long reign, and Burleigh was one of the faithful and good advisers who helped her to put an end to the quarrels about religion, and to keep at peace with other countries as far as possible.

The Queen's Cousin who Left a Throne to Die in a Tower

Scotland in those days was torn in two, like England, between those who followed the Pope and those who did not. Those in favor of him sent little Mary to France to be brought up there, and to marry the French king's eldest son. Her young husband soon died and Mary sorrowfully left the gay court of France and came back to hard and troubled times in her own kingdom. She married her cousin, Darnley, and their little son became James VI of Scotland.

Mary had many quarrels with her subjects, the chief one being that they believed she had something to do with the murder of her husband, Darnley. Later she fled to England, and Elizabeth kept her a prisoner in various castles and finally caused her to be beheaded.

The Great Wealth and the Great Cruelty of Spain

England passed through a great and most exciting time after Mary's execution. Soon after Elizabeth became queen, Philip, her brother-in-law, had

wanted her to marry him, so that England and Spain might join against France. Spain was very powerful, because it possessed the Netherlands, so rich from commerce in the wool trade, in which England had a share. Spain had, too, the wealth brought by the splendid discoveries of Columbus in the New World. But Elizabeth would not listen; she helped Philip's Protestant subjects in the Netherlands, and Philip in return helped Mary's plots against Elizabeth. The English hated the Spaniards at this time for their cruelty to the Protestants, and also because they tried to keep England out of all the trade they could in the New World. Sailors such as Hawkins and Drake, pounced on the Spanish treasures when they could, either on shore or at sea, and at last Philip determined to add England to his other dominions by conquest.

Ships poured out of every harbor as the Armada sailed in a broad crescent up the Channel. Elizabeth, on horseback, reviewed her troops at Tilbury, encouraging her captains and men by her presence and her speech.

"I know," said she, "that I have but the body of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart of a king, and of a king of England, too."

The ships of the enemy were slow and helpless, and got in each other's way; while the little "sea hawks" of the English darted in and out, and drove the Armada out to sea by sending fire-ships among them, so that they fled away to the North Sea in a terrible storm. Those that were not wrecked escaped round the north of Scotland and west of Ireland. To this day there are traces here and there along the coasts of the disastrous retreat of the Spanish Armada.

THE END OF ELIZABETH'S REIGN AND THE END OF THE TUDORS

For thirty years the terror of Spain had hung over it, and now that power was laid low, and England became of importance among the countries of Europe.

Notwithstanding all the greatness and glory of Elizabeth's reign, the excitement of discoveries, the satisfaction of success, when the end came it found her a lonely old woman. Most of her friends died before her. She had neither husband nor child to care for. She had never seen Mary's son, who was to succeed her, but she wrote to him two months before her death, begging him not to believe some charges brought against her. She signed herself, "Your loving and friendly sister, Elizabeth."

Two months later a rider sped north on relays of horses, night and day, to be the first to tell James Stuart, the King of Scotland, that he was also King of England.

THE TIMES OF THE STUARTS

THE messenger who rode north at such breakneck speed to tell James Stuart that his cousin Elizabeth was dead did the journey in a few days, much to everyone's surprise. Now news is flashed between Edinburgh and London in a few seconds, and travel the distance by rail in about eight hours!

So secure did James feel about the succession to the English crown that his journey south was a sort of pleasure excursion.

Three centuries had passed since the old Hammer of the Scots, Edward I had so ardently desired that the north and south kingdoms should be united under one ruler—three centuries of constant war, now on one side, now on the other. Yet the desired union of the crowns did not come about on the battlefield, but peacefully by inheri-

tance, and by request of Parliament, when James VI of Scotland was crowned James I of England in the old coronation chair, over the old block of stone that the Scots had so hated to lose, within a few feet of Edward's resting-place in the Abbey.

For another hundred years the two countries had their own Parliaments and governments; but under the last of the Stuarts the union became complete.

The first settlers from every country had hard times to bear, and much failure. It was Sir Walter Raleigh who named England's first colony after Queen Elizabeth, Virginia, and James gave it a charter. By this time Spain, Portugal, Holland, France, all had dominions on each side of the Atlantic, and very soon struggles and fights about the new lands arose, which led to nearly two centuries of war among the five greater nations of Europe.

THE GROWTH OF THE NATION IN MODERN TIMES

THE times that followed the Stuarts were times of war which lasted all through the eighteenth century, and part of the nineteenth, and was finally settled at the battle of Waterloo on June 18, 1815.

This long struggle of over a hundred years was one long, mighty struggle between France and England for possession of lands in America and Asia, and the sovereignty of the seas that formed the highway to them.

It was not by accident nor by chance that those great groups of land, Canada and the West Indies, South Africa and Australia and New Zealand, came to be inhabited chiefly by English-speaking people, who still call the British Isles their home. In the main, it was the various stages of one long duel, by the bravery and devotion of generations of soldiers and sailors, that turned Great Britain into the Greater Britain of today.

THE BEGINNING OF QUEEN VICTORIA'S LONG REIGN

After Anne, the last of the Stuarts, the crown fell to some German cousins, the four Georges, who reigned 116 years. The last of the Georges died, and was succeeded by William the Fourth, the sailor king, after whose short reign of seven years the throne fell to a girl of eighteen years, Princess Victoria.

The life of Queen Victoria was full of great and stirring events for the country, and her reign was not only the longest, but the most prosperous reign in the history of the land.

HOW PRINCESS VICTORIA CAME TO THE THRONE AT EIGHTEEN

Many queens of England we may pass by, until we come to the grandchild of King George III, who came to the throne after two of her uncles had ruled.

This was Victoria who died in 1901, having reigned for nearly sixty-four years, longer than any other king or queen of England.

She was a young maiden of eighteen when she began to reign; and soon after she chose for her husband a German prince, Albert. Their eldest son was Edward VII. Prince Albert, however, was not king, but only "Prince Consort"—that is, he had no power of his own in the government of England, though the queen might turn to him for counsel. But even so he had to be careful lest he should be charged with "interfering."

Now although, since the time of Anne, it has been the statesmen rather than the kings and queens who have ruled the country, yet a monarch may do much good and much evil—and George III did a good deal of both.

THE GREAT CHANCES THAT CAME ABOUT IN QUEEN VICTORIA'S REIGN

But Victoria's rule was good, because she knew well when it would be wise and right for her to urge her own views upon British Ministers and upon foreign rulers, and when it would be wiser to set her own views on one side.

And so, again, as in the reigns of Elizabeth and Anne, the British Empire grew great and prosperous. The reign was one of peace; for though twice there were fightings for power in India, and twice in Afghanistan, and once in the very last years of her rule against the Boers in South Africa, yet there was one war only against a European nation—the Crimean War against Russia. The colonies of Great Britain grew so that they have become great states; and there were many great writers; and men of science made wonderful discoveries, so that the face of the earth changed more in that time than in centuries before.

Therefore many people think today that in ages to come men will look back upon the Victorian Era as one of the most wonderful periods in all time, because of the spread of knowledge and the growth of Britain's rule.

RULERS OF THE LATER TIME

Queen Victoria died in 1901, and was succeeded by her son, King Edward VII, whose death in 1910 plunged the British Empire into mourning. The British people are not in the habit of giving extra titles like the "great" and the "good" to their kings; but to Edward VII a title of high honor has been given, and men have called him Edward the Peacemaker. Shrewd and wise and genial, all men learned to trust his counsel, and he had the skill to turn folk from ill-feeling and suspicion to friendliness and confidence.

When Edward the Peacemaker passed away, his son George became king. For the second time, the monarch is a sailor prince, most fitted to rule over a nation whose greatness depends on her sailors more than all else. His people do not yet know him as they knew his father; for King Edward had played much of the king's own part while his mother still reigned. Yet we know enough to be assured that he will be a king worthy of his high calling, ranking with those whose names the nation holds in honor.

The fact that the greatest war in history, in which Great Britain took a leading part, extended from 1914 to 1918, is sufficient to signalize the reign of George V.

A STORY PICTURE OF GERMANY

THE story of England and France all through the centuries is written plainly for those who have eyes to see, in the streets and buildings of their capitals. With Germany it is somewhat different.

In Berlin, the capital of Prussia and the empire, there is little that is more than about 200 years old. This city, which has grown up in so short a time, filling up the valley of the Spree with palaces and factories, illustrates the rise of Prussia and the founding of the empire under its leadership.

Ever since the days of the Great Elector, who first made elaborate plans for the city, and who planted the double avenue of basswood trees which has developed into a triumphal way for his successors, every ruler of Prussia has beautified the capital by adding fine streets and squares, and bridges, splendid palaces and museums, picture galleries and public buildings of all kinds. Miles of houses for rich and for poor have sprung up as the population has risen from a few thousands to over 2,000,000. And everywhere there are monuments and statues to keep in remembrance the men and the events that have helped to make Prussia and the German empire.

Lines from all parts converge upon Berlin, and within the well-kept city itself are railways and conveyances of every kind; for the Unter den Linden is a mile long, and the Thiergarten, the other side of the Brandenburg Gate, is a large park, and the suburbs lie widely distant.

William II always took great interest in statuary. He was a lover of monuments. Out of his own purse he paid for a large number of marble statues which adorn the Thiergarten, each group representing one of the ancestors of the late Emperor and two of that ancestor's chief counsellors. He believed that there was the possibility of great influence coming from such visible symbols of what patriotic men had done for the Empire. Furthermore he ordered that the classes of children in the Berlin schools should regularly be taken by their teachers to these monuments where it would be explained who these men were and the incidents in history with which the heroes were connected.

The statues, set up by the nation, of the Emperor William I and his first Chancellor, Bismarck, are notable monuments. The classes pause beside the statues of the generals, the men of science, and, above all, the world-famed writers, such as Goethe and Schiller, whose beautiful thoughts are a bond of union not only for all Germans, but for all human beings who can read and understand them.

The teachers in charge of the class stop to point out the iron cross below the eagle in the copper group over the Brandenburg Gate. That group of Victory in a four-horse chariot was taken to Paris in 1807, when Napoleon crushed Prussia. It was restored seven years later, and it was then that the iron cross was added.

One cannot go far with the story of the German Empire without coming to the man who had been for more than twenty-five years the central figure in that country — the late Emperor, grandson of the Empress-Queen Augusta and William I.

His face looked out from the shop windows of the whole of Germany; from the walls of every hotel, school, church and every house and public building. This was a part of the Emperor's vanity.

In his passion for royalty, he made every effort to impress himself upon his people by keeping himself always before them. Display was a mania with him and expressed itself in an insatiable fondness for dress, fine horses, and all the imaginable pageantry of royalty.

People who have always looked upon a sovereign as a sort of automatic figure, only working and acting through others, can not understand this impetuous man, who from the beginning of his reign came out of the stiff retirement hitherto thought necessary for a ruler, and spoke his mind not only to his Ministers, but to his people. Bismarck himself, the grandfather's old friend and helper, could not see things in the same light and had many warm discussions over questions of policy and practical plans, but the young Emperor, of course, had his way and the old pilot had to be dropped. However, the progress in the past quarter of a century had been on the lines laid down in the old chart of the famous Chancellor, Bismarck. It is the world's misfortune that this Emperor, possessed of certain powerful characteristics, should have been so medieval in his ideas of government. Able though he was, as judged by certain standards, his intense selfishness and vanity and his autocratic contempt of real democracy were largely instrumental in bringing upon the world the greatest war of history. There was a time when we liked to read passages of eulogy of this man and admired his wide interests in men and affairs and careful attention to the smallest details of the army and navy, but now under the shadow of a universal tragedy his name is despised by the larger part of the civilized world. He is looked upon as the chief cause for the disgust and hatred which have fallen upon Germany as a partial result of the war.

William II spent part of the year at Potsdam, about eighteen miles from Berlin, a city of beautiful palaces and parks, often called the cradle of the Prussian Army, because it was here that Frederick the Great did so much to bring it into discipline and order.

Before the World War, every German, when he was twenty, had to enter the Army and serve for a year unless some acceptable reason prevented; so the whole nation was ruled by the military party. At the time of year when the recruits joined, the trains were full of them going to the different stations all over Germany, or you met them marching along the roads singing their patriotic songs. No doubt it was good for many of them to be drilled and made orderly, but it was a great interruption to study and examinations, and many were badly needed in factories and to till the fields.

It is impossible to conceive the great deprivation to the nation of the wages of over a half million men, lost to industry, agriculture and commerce. And this did not include the enormous, ever-increasing expense of the army and navy. Every year the nation felt more heavily the burden of taxes levied for the support of the military class, until it seemed that the people could no longer submit to them, and yet the taxes went higher and higher each year.

It is sad, indeed, to think of the vast sums spent on guns and battleships and armies, not only in Germany, but in the countries that felt obliged to keep pace with her. So long as men keep to the old barbarous idea of settling disputes about boundaries, or trade, or insults, by sending thousands of men to kill thousands of their fellows, every country is afraid to have fewer soldiers than its neighbor.

ROTTWEIL, ONE OF THE SMALLER GERMAN CITIES, NOTED FOR ITS SCULPTURES AND PAINTINGS.

William II was often called the creator of the German Navy, so rapid had been its rise in his times. Many who went before him said that it was necessary that the seaboard on the north should be protected, as well as the trading ships on the high seas. But real progress in this direction was made only in late years, when battleship after battleship was built and men were trained to serve in them.

"If we have need of ships," said the Kaiser, "we must depend on ourselves," and so great shipbuilding yards arose along the sandy shores of the Baltic and North Seas, at the mouths of rivers where the water is deepest. At Stettin, on the Oder, at Danzig, on the Vistula, at Hamburg, on the Elbe, at Bremen, on the Weser, monster battleships and great liners, among the fastest in the world, took shape and started their journeys. The headquarters of the Navy was at Kiel; Wilhelmshaven was also a large naval port. These two are at the Baltic and North Sea ends of the great canal which now joins them.

When Bismarck passionately urged the necessity for this canal, so that ships might have a quicker way of getting out of the Baltic than by the narrow passages by Denmark and Sweden, his words opened up a new view of what the Navy might be—perhaps an unhappy suggestion for Germany.

Before the war, some of the greatest ocean liners started from Hamburg and Bremen; both belonged to the old league of free cities. A steamer trip on the Elbe and in the port gives us the best idea of the wonders of Hamburg, one of the most important places for trade in the world, connected by railways with every part of Europe. Here emigrants embark for the United States and Canada, and ships belonging to every nation jostle each other in the busy harbor bringing the largest proportion of all that Germany needs, and taking away what she has to sell.

THE BUSY TOWNS AND CITIES ON GERMANY'S GREAT RIVERS

We know what she needs to some extent, from our own exports—flour, corn, pork, cotton, and other things grown in this country, as well as raw materials for manufactures. To find out what she has to sell and what she manufactures, one should travel up the rivers and on the lines of railways that run in their valleys and connect all the important centers. The Elbe, with its long, navigable course—right into Bohemia—and its many tributaries, and its system of canals, plays an important part in the trade of the empire. The Spree, on which Berlin stands, is one of its tributaries. On the banks of the Elbe are Dresden and Magdeburg. Dresden, the capital of Saxony, is full of treasures of art, and famous for delicate china works; Magdeburg is in the midst of great fields of beetroot, from which enormous quantities of sugar are made. Other industries are iron-founding and machine-making.

The River Oder runs a similar course to the Elbe, through fields of beet and potatoes or flax, and corn of different kinds. It also connects with Berlin by canal, so that the capital may be said to have two ports—Stettin, on the Oder, and Hamburg, on the Elbe. We have already seen how wonderfully Berlin has grown in its handsome west-end quarters. Its development in the matter of trade and factories is no less surprising. Thousands of workmen make in it machinery and locomotives, arms, chemicals, all sorts of woven goods, and every possible thing needed in furnishing a house.

The second city is in Prussia on the Oder: Breslau, the capital of Silesia,

THE GREAT ZWINGER PICTURE GALLERY, DRESDEN, HOME OF THE FAMOUS SISTINE MADONNA

taken by Frederick the Great from Maria Theresa. Like Berlin, it manufactures steam-engines, railway carriages and linen and cotton goods.

These two great northern rivers come from the ring of mountains that have kept Bohemia so shut off through the centuries—the Giant Mountains and the Ore Mountains. Round about the lowest slopes of these mountains lie many coalfields, and mines of iron and zinc, and many other precious and useful metals.

THE MANUFACTURES THAT HAVE HELPED TO MAKE GERMANY PROSPEROUS

The wool of the sheep of Saxony and Silesia is used in the making of the famous flannels and warm materials prized all over the world. Formerly Germany was an agricultural country, growing enough corn and roots to feed its people, and raising great numbers of sheep, cattle, and horses. Now its chief wealth lies in its great manufacturing powers; and its energy and ability in this direction have been much admired. We have just glanced at some of the industries in the valleys of the northern rivers.

Passing westward, one comes to Leipzig, the seat of the book trade, and Jena, where lenses for telescopes and microscopes are made for the whole world. Cotton and silk factories are located in the northwest of the country, where it is easy to obtain the raw material from abroad, and coal from the neighboring coalfields. One of the largest of these is in the Ruhr Valley, near the Rhine, and upon it depend the enormous iron and steel works which supply most of the plates of iron and steel, the boilers and engines, and thousands of things needed to build up a great liner or warship, as well as cannon and arms of all kinds needed by the Army and Navy.

The Cathedrals and Factories on the Banks of the Rhine

In Krupp's great factory at Essen in peace times thirty thousand people were at work, and for miles round are growing towns, with tall, smoking chimneys, and the roaring blast furnaces and deafening clang of metal-working. The largest inland port in Europe is formed of three towns at the point where the Ruhr joins the Rhine, and here are docks and ship-building yards, besides business centers for grain and timber. Everywhere, too, are factories in which furniture is made.

There are many passenger steamers on the Rhine; one runs from the mouth, in Holland, as far as Maintz, and provides an easy and pleasant way to see this wonderful part of Germany. After passing the flat part of the course, where the interest of the busy work going on makes up for the dullness of the scenery, we reach Köln—better known to us by its French name of Cologne—famed for its cathedral, one of the most magnificent Gothic buildings in the world. It was over six hundred years in building, and when finished at last on the old plans, was opened in the presence of the Emperor William I and the sovereigns of Germany.

Not far from Cologne is Aachen, called by the French Aix-la-Chapelle, the home of Charlemagne, and there we can still see in the interesting cathedral a gilded candlestick presented by Barbarossa.

The Towns of the Rhine

The most important towns are Bonn, with its fine university, and Coblentz, beautifully situated where the Moselle joins the Rhine. On the terraced slopes of both rivers grow the vines from which much famous wine is made, and this trade makes Coblentz and other towns very busy.

On the Moselle is the oldest town in Germany, Trier, which the French call Treves, with its beautiful Roman bridge and gate and fine remains of theater, baths and temple. Here too, is a most interesting brick building, built in the fourth century, called the Basilica, where justice was administered. Now it is used as a Protestant church.

Some Famous Towns, a Famous Shoemaker's Shop, and a Forest

Maintz—in French, Mayence—has a fine position at the meeting of two rivers, and has a long and interesting history. Its museum is very famous for its rich collection of Roman remains. Among other treasures is the Roman shoemaker's workshop, all complete with tools, leather and sandals. Shoes are still made at Maintz, but, like Coblentz, it is a great center for the wine trade.

Strasbourg, the capital of Alsace-Lorraine, is situated at the junction of the Ill and the Breusch, two miles west of the Rhine. Its history has been an eventful one. It belonged to France for 200 years, was torn away by the Germans in 1871 but now is French again. The Cathedral, showing the work of four centuries, is a most interesting building. The other prominent structures are the University of Strasbourg, founded in 1567, the Protestant Church of St. Thomas, the Protestant Neue Kirche, the Roman Catholic Church of the Sacred Heart, the Library containing 800,000 volumes, and the Hotel du Commerce. Mulhouse is the most important manufacturing town in the province, with its iron foundries and engineering works. It also employs many people making cotton goods, chemicals and paper.

East of the Rhine, in Baden, lies the beautiful Black Forest. Here the peasants in their quaint little houses carve wood figures very artistically and also great numbers of cuckoo clocks. There are also many mines in the mountains, and industries of various kinds. Many visitors go to Baden to drink the mineral waters. The plain of Baden is very fertile.

THE DANUBE AND THE TOWNS ON ITS BANKS

From the Black Forest rises the mighty Danube; the upper part of its course lies in Würtemberg, a hilly agricultural country about the same size as Wales. At Ulm the Danube passes into the large kingdom of Bavaria, and upon it, or its tributaries, are many great cities.

There is Munich, the capital of Bavaria, on the Isar, the third largest city in the empire, which attracts the art-loving world to see its treasures of pictures and its museum collections, and also to hear its famous concerts.

Augsburg possesses abundant water power, obtained from canals crossing the town, which has given rise to industries such as weaving and cotton-spinning, and making machinery. In the past it was a center of traffic from the north of Europe to Italy and the eastern part of the Mediterranean; and its buildings, lasting till today, remind us of the rich citizens of the Middle Ages and the money-lenders who helped such great sovereigns as Maximilian I and Charles V.

There is much that is interesting to be seen at Ratisbon, often called the key of the Danube, from its position; and fighting has often raged round it, from the times of the Romans right down to those of Napoleon Bonaparte.

Ludwig I, King of Bavaria, built, in the last century, a German temple of fame a few miles out of Ratisbon. It is built after the copy of the most beautiful of the Greek temples, the Parthenon at Athens, of gray marble. Over the north entrance is sculptured a representation of the battle won by Hermann over the Romans; on the south side, facing the Danube, is shown Germany regaining her liberty after the battle of Leipzig. Inside, running around the entire hall, is a frieze showing the history and life of the Germanic race before they were Christians. Over a hundred busts represent famous Germans who have helped to make history. That of William I was added in 1898. There are also tablets bearing the names of great men of whom no portrait exists, and some commemorate the work of those whose names, even, are unknown, such as the writer of the greatest early German poem and the architect of Cologne Cathedral.

THE TOWN THAT IS FAMOUS FOR ITS CHILDREN'S TOYS

Not far from Ratisbon is Nuremberg, a free city of the empire till 1806, since when it has belonged to Bavaria. Long ago it was a center of trade between Germany, Venice, and the East, and then the discovery of the sea route to India, round the Cape, took away much of its commerce and prosperity. It has very interesting old houses, like so many of these South German towns, and is full of reminders of the long wars, as well as of the wealth, importance and taste of a "City of the Empire." In modern times it became famous for the great numbers of toys that pass from its workshops to many parts of the world. Also it makes machinery and metal wares and lead pencils. We are nearing again the Ore Mountains, whence we set out on our tour to the various cities of Germany. In nearly all

these cities are fine old cathedrals, picturesque marketplaces and town halls, also universities, often dating back to the past. And everywhere are statues and war memorials, as in Berlin, linking the past with the present.

What numbers of different sorts of people we have passed on our road! Peasants in different states wear different costumes; and manners and customs and speech vary greatly. Germany is three and a half times as large as the State of New York, and there are more than sixty millions of people living in it.

The people of Germany and their religion

More than half that number of people live in Prussia. Many work in the fields and vineyards and beautifully kept forests, which cover a quarter of the country. Others are to be found in the mines and factories, yards and shops, in the ports and ships, in the Army, in the schools and universities.

We have heard the gay Rhinelanders singing of the glorious deeds of their past and the beauties of the country, as the soldiers marched, as the schoolgirls played in the woods, as the students tramped up and down the hills. In other parts of the country the people are graver or slower, according to the branch of the German family to which they belong. Some of the differences that have arisen in the past have been on account of religion. North Germany is chiefly Protestant; South Germany is mainly Roman Catholic. In the Rhineland are numbers professing both faiths. Many jealousies and dislikes have passed away under the influence of common aims and interests, and increased facilities for traveling about and mixing with each other, and the rise of more general education.

The schools to which the German children go

Germany has always paid great attention to matters of education, and today there are very few people unable to read and write. It was from Germany we learned largely how to make first lessons interesting to little children in the schools, and great pains are taken not only in elementary schools, but in higher grades, to make learning useful and attractive. The fees in the higher schools are so low that even poor people can send their children, and as it is very cheap to attend the universities, and there are so many of them, almost any student can take advantage of the highest education to be had. Then, great attention is paid to teaching the various trades under the best possible conditions, so that workers get a thorough training to fit them to earn their living. The Government has done its best to get the most useful subjects taught in schools, so that time should not be wasted, and to spread the knowledge of trades and industries, so as to encourage skilled workmen all over the empire.

Germany's possessions overseas

Before William II came to the throne, Germany had given little attention to extending her borders and finding new markets for the goods which she manufactured. At first travelers visited foreign parts, and traders from the old free cities followed them, setting up factories on the west and east coasts of Africa in places yet empty and ungoverned. A telegram from Bismarck, directing the German flag to be hoisted in certain of these places, thus taking the merchants under the empire's protection, was the beginning of German colonies. Later, large territories in various parts of Africa fell to Germany as well as

some of the beautiful islands of the Pacific, the Bismarck Archipelago off the north part of New Guinea, and a small territory in China, all of which were lost in the World War.

When one follows the story of the development of the German Empire both within the country and over seas, industrially and intellectually, one is overwhelmed with a sense of tragedy that so great a nation should have had such a short sighted vision to plunge the world into a war which could leave the prospering German Empire impoverished and despised, deprived of its world trade and its extensive colonial possessions. And even this would be small compared to the loss of the respect of the whole world and its own millions of young men so fatuously sacrificed. Could a sadder ending come to a great story? No one can look into the future, but to us who stand at the close of the war it is difficult to see a single material advantage that can possibly come to Germany from the war. Her loss is her reward for allowing herself to be ruled by a feudal autocracy in the person of an impetuous and egotistical sovereign who had a mania for pageantry and self display. If the war with all its awful sacrifices may lead this benighted people into light, if it can remove forever from the pathway of civilization this great obstacle to individual human freedom, then the gigantic struggle will not have been in vain.

AN OLD CASTLE IN THE CITY OF MEERSBURG

RISE OF THE LATE GERMAN EMPIRE

The history of the late German Empire is largely the history of the rise of Prussia. Bismarck lifted Prussia from a second rate member of the German Confederation, which was dominated by Austria, to a first place among the German states and then formed around it a new nation—Germany, and made the nation one of the great powers of the world. Bismarck believed in autocracy, he believed in "blood and iron," in the "mailed fist." He achieved his success by war, deliberately planned, prepared for and efficiently carried out.

In 1862, Emperor William I, the grandfather of William II, was struggling to get the Prussian Diet to grant him money to double the size of his army. He had been unsuccessful in this effort. He was about to give it up when as a final experiment he consented to invite into his ministry the little-known reactionary leader, Otto von Bismarck. Bismarck's political ideas centered around his belief in the Prussian monarchy. It had been the Prussian kings, not the Prussian people that had made Prussia great. Bismarck believed in the king and disbelieved in the people. He also believed in war as a means of national progress. In the most famous speech of his life in 1863 he announced "Not by speeches and majority votes are the great questions of the day decided—but by 'blood and iron.' "

In 1863, Prussia and Austria went to war against Denmark and took the duchy of Lauenburg and the provinces of Schleswig and Holstein, in which the Kiel Canal and the German naval base is now. Austria was to administer Holstein, Prussia and Schleswig. Prussia paid Austria $1,800,000 for the duchy of Lauenburg. Bismarck approved this whole arrangement in spite of the fact that he thought it might lead to war with Austria. His "blood and iron" policy implied that a German nation under Prussian domination could come only after a war with Austria. There was not room in a German Confederation for both Austria and Prussia—"one or the other must bend." Within a year after the division of Schleswig-Holstein, Bismarck had obtained a promise from Napoleon III to remain neutral if Prussia attacked Austria. He also made a treaty with Italy providing that Italy would join Prussia in a war on Austria if Prussia began the war within three months, for the sake of reforms in the German Confederation. The enemy was thus isolated, and Prussia was prepared to use both "blood and iron."

Bismarck immediately and quite unexpectedly introduced into the Diet of Frankfort, the governing body of the German Confederation, a new plan for the federation of German states. With this as a background, to satisfy the Italian treaty, Bismarck picked a quarrel with Austria over its administration of Holstein, declared the old confederation dissolved, attacked Austria, and invited the other German states to do likewise. None of the other important states sided with Prussia. Four of them stood with Austria. But Prussia was prepared, trained and ready for war. In seven weeks Austria was defeated and soon after all Germany was at the mercy of the Prussians.

Prussia now annexed the kingdom of Hanover, four duchies and the free city of Frankfort, bringing under the Prussian king practically all the peoples and land along the north coast from the Russian border to the border of

GROWTH OF THE LATE GERMAN EMPIRE

PRUSSIA UP TO 1863

The kingdom when Bismarck became Chancellor to King William I—A divided state, a member of the German Confederation which was dominated by Austria under Francis Joseph II, the present ruler.

PRUSSIA AT THE END OF 1864

The first "Blood and Iron" war in which Austria and Prussia took the Danish Province of Holstein and put it under Austrian administration and the Province of Schleswig which was put under Prussian administration.

AFTER THE PRUSSIAN-AUSTRIAN WAR

Bismarck's second "Blood and Iron" venture was to provoke a war with Austria, defeat that country at Sadowa in 1866, join the two parts of the Prussian kingdom, and enlarge it by territorial conquests.

AFTER THE FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR

Bismarck's third experiment in "Blood and Iron" was to engineer a war with France, defeat its armies, take Alsace and Lorraine and create a new German empire with Prussia at its head.

Holland. There was no thought of having the people of these states vote on the question of annexation as had been done in Italy. They were annexed by the right of conquest on decrees issued from Berlin. Thus increased, Prussia became the leader in a new German Confederation which included all but four German states and from which Austria was excluded.

Bismarck's policy had triumphed. Prussia had humbled Austria and become the dominant power in Germany. Yet Germany was not united. The four southern states still were outside the Confederation. Bismarck believed a war between France and Prussia inevitable and, in his opinion it was desirable as the only way of completing the unification, since Napoleon III would never willingly consent to the extension of the Confederation to include the South German states. All that he desired was that it should come at precisely the right moment, when Prussia was entirely ready, and that it should come by act of France so that Prussia could pose before Europe as merely defending herself against a wanton aggressor. In his "Reminiscences" he avows that he entertained his belief as early as 1866. "That a war with France would succeed the war with Austria lay in the logic of history": and again, "I did not doubt that a Franco-German war must take place before the construction of a United Germany could be realized." The unification of Germany being his supreme aim, he was bound by logic and ambition to take advantage of that war when it occurred.

Everything was as Bismarck foresaw. The South German states joined Prussia. The French were defeated quickly and completely. In less than six months, after the opening gun was fired, on January 18, 1871, King William the First was crowned Emperor of a united Germany, the four southern states had joined the Empire, and Alsace and Lorraine were soon annexed to Prussia.

In less than ten years Bismarck by "blood and iron," by shrewd diplomacy backed by the best trained army in Europe had turned a second rate German state into an Empire, a first-class power among the nations of the world.

Bismarck's use of "blood and iron" made Germany strong among the nations on the European continent. He recognized, however, that "blood and iron" was a policy to be used with great care. Before every one of the three wars in which he participated he was careful to do two things: (1) to isolate the country to be attacked by arrangements that would keep other nations from interfering with the war and (2), to be certain that his army was better prepared than that of the enemy.

This was the method that Bismarck employed to achieve the great ambition of his life—the unification of Germany.

The recent Emperor inherited German militarism and German Imperialism, a belief in the divine right of kings, and the strength of the German Army. On his accession to the throne, in the speech he made to the army and navy three days before his speech to the people, he reiterated Bismarck's doctrine in these words:

"The soldier and the army, not parliamentary majorities, have welded together the German Empire. My confidence is placed on the army."

Emperor William's vision went further even than Bismarck's unification of Germany. "Our future is on the water," he announced. "The more the Germans go upon the water the better it will be for us." This announcement was in 1901. But the date of the first naval programme was 1893, three years after Bismarck's

retirement. The Kiel Canal was opened in 1895. In that same year Germany joined France and Russia in a demand upon Japan that it give up Port Arthur, which it had just taken from the Chinese. The interest of Russia and therefore of its ally, France, was plain enough. Russia wanted the port itself. Germany's interference seemed entirely uncalled for and provoked much resentment in Japan. This combination against Japan resulted in the Anglo-Japanese alliance which later gave the Japanese an excuse to attack the German eastern possessions as an ally of Great Britain.

In 1905, the Emperor in person landed in Morocco, where France felt it had particular claims. As a result of this visit the Sultan refused to accept the French programme and asked for a conference with representatives of the leading powers to advise him. M. Delcassé, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, protested that France would attend to the matter alone. The German Chancellor, Von Bülow, used threatening language. France gave up and M. Delcassé resigned.

In 1908 Austria took over Bosnia and Herzegovina. England and Russia protested that this was against the stipulations of the treaty of Berlin. Russia intimated that the annexation of Slav provinces might lead to its interference. The German Emperor responded with a threat of instant mobilization. Russia had not recovered from its unlucky Japanese war, and the Czar had to back down. Again German diplomacy was successful and another nation was given a grievance against Germany.

In 1909 an agreement was made with France concerning Morocco. All was seemingly satisfactory when on the first of July, 1911, the First Secretary of the German Embassy called upon the French Foreign Minister to inform him of Germany's decision to send a warship to Agadir. The cruiser *Panther* failed of her mission. France was not intimidated but the incident was fresh fuel to the French feeling against Germany.

In July, 1900, at the launching of the *Wittelsbach*, William II declared that the "ocean was indispensable tc German greatness":

"The ocean teaches us that on its waves and on its most distant shores no great decision can any longer be taken without Germany and without the German Emperor. I do not think that it was in order to allow themselves to be excluded from big foreign affairs that thirty years ago our people led by their princes, conquered and shed their blood. Were the German people to let themselves be treated thus, it would be, and forever, the end of their world-power; and I do not mean that that shall ever cease, but rather I shall employ, in order to prevent it, the suitable means, if need be."

There was another belief which Emperor William inherited. It is exemplified in the speech he made in 1910, and was often expressed during the great war:

"Considering myself as the instrument of the Lord, without heeding the views and opinions of the day, I go my way."

Although historians and statesmen and the general reader had followed the history of the growth of the German Empire and had wondered at the expressions of beliefs and wishes on the part of the Emperor, few persons, if any, outside the German Empire really believed that there would be a great war. With the expansion of German industries and the general increase of German efficiency, no one supposed that the Empire could be so short-sighted as to go to war and jeopardize her trade and colonial possessions as well as the good will of the entire world. She had grown foolish

in her own conceit. And the world rested secure, believing in principles of international law and arbitration and an ever-widening circle of cooperation of labor and industry which it seemed would comprehend the civilized world.

The world outside of Germany did not know that the German teaching of the gospel of hate was so soon to bear its bitter fruit. Dreaming that all the hopes and promises were true, and that nothing could thwart her purposes she seized upon a trivial incident, the assassination of the Arch Duke Ferdinand of Austria, as a motive to support Austria in her arrogant demands upon Serbia for the punishment of the murderer and other terms which could not be accepted by any self-respecting nation. Serbia was willing to go more than half way in the acceptance of terms. Germany, in prodding Austria on, seemed to fear that the chance to make war would be lost and demanded an immediate acceptance. Evidence is abundant to show that every step taken by Austria was at the instigation of Germany. So war was declared. Austria was supported by Turkey and Germany. Serbia was backed by Russia, who in turn brought in France. The wanton invasion of Belgium brought in Great Britain who had promised to protect her. As nation after nation declared itself, the struggle soon became world-wide—on the one hand the Central Powers, Germany, Austria, Bulgaria and Turkey, on the other hand Russia, France, Italy, England, Belgium, Serbia and America.

In such a conflict, on one side of which were those who professed to believe in the divine right of kings, and yet really believed that might makes right, and on the other side were those who believed in the right of all peoples to self-government, there could be but one conclusion. The allied countries, provided with inexhaustible supplies and men, and animated by a sincere belief that they were contending for righteousness, finally overcame and completely crushed the militaristic imperialism of a misguided and cruel Prussianism.

Birth of the Republic of Germany

When the great World War ended in the crushing defeat of the Central Powers, and Emperor William had abdicated his throne and fled to Holland, the Republic of Germany was established.

Under the constitution adopted in 1919, universal suffrage was granted to the people of both sexes. Every distinction of classes was abolished, all citizens being made free and equal before the law, which guarantees the right of free speech and the freedom of the Press. The members of the Legislature are chosen by secret ballot. The President of the Republic is elected by the people and holds office for seven years.

Long may the Republic endure, if it brings peace and prosperity and happiness to the German people!

THE STORIED RHINE

THERE is no river more beautiful or more fascinating than the Rhine. It possesses castles in hundreds, Alpine peaks and glaciers and snowfields, a lovely inland sea forty miles from shore to shore, a magnificent waterfall, and a thousand stories. It is older than the Nile, for it nourished mankind thousands of years ago. The earliest Rhinelander was recently found buried in forty-three feet of sand, and above him was another thirty-six feet of drifted dust. All of this earth had gradually accumulated by natural means in the course of ages.

Few other rivers have such a history. To understand the Rhine is to understand Europe, both ancient and modern. For two thousand years the Rhine has influenced the life of European nations. It is a river of romance and legend. Its wide green waters, flowing below castled crags and ancient towns, has been one of the great civilizing forces that have made Europe what it is. For two thousand years the Gaul and the Teuton have quarreled about the river that divides them. In the days before Jesus was born the Emperor Augustus of Rome tried to annex the Rhine to France. His ruined fortifications still stretch along the German hills beyond the great river. But the Teuton tribes gathered together in a great battle, overthrew the Roman legions, and preserved their liberty. Out of this great victory arose modern Britain, modern France and Spain, modern Germany, Italy, and Austria, for it led at last to the overthrow of the Roman Empire and the stormy foundation of modern Europe.

JOURNEY ALONG THE BEAUTIFUL AND HISTORIC RIVER

At first it is difficult to see in a trip down the Rhine, from its source in the Alps to its outflow into the sea in Holland, why it should have attracted conqueror after conqueror, from Augustus to Charlemagne, from Napoleon to Bismarck. Even on the Alpine heights, where the Rhine rises, the great German Emperor of the Middle Ages, Barbarossa, had planted a German colony. The land belonged to a Latin race, but the German conqueror put his own people there, and they flourished in their new home and kept their old language. They formed themselves into a little fighting republic, and dominated their Italian neighbors. The idea was to control the whole course of the Rhine from the North Sea to the Italian frontier, and keep the control in the hands of Germanic races. For the Rhine was the river of life; it fed Europe.

Today we have to call on our imagination to understand the importance of the Rhine in ancient times. Then there were practically no roads, goods were conveyed on pack-horses along lonely, dangerous, and difficult bridle-paths. Only at great expense, great labor, and peril could commerce be carried on through forests, heaths, and marshes. Each village was practically shut off from the rest of the world, and everything that people needed they produced or made themselves. There was little buying and selling, and no opportunity for ordinary folk to develop their minds by intercourse with the outer world. So, through a continent where everybody lived by custom and tradition, shut off from the stir of thought and the large movement of life, flowed the Rhine—the grand highway of civilization—with boats full of travelers, traders, and merchandise. Along the Rhine came the early missionaries from the British Isles, converting the people from Saxony to

PICTURE MAP OF THE RHINE

Showing the course of that famous river from the mountains of Switzerland to the sea in Holland.

the borders of Austria. The town of Mayence has for its arms a wheel. It is the wheel of the son of an English wheelwright in Devonshire, who went in 716 to the continent to convert the German tribes. He settled at Mayence as Primate of Germany, and the town still uses his wheel in their coat-of-arms. A hundred years before he sailed the Rhine an Irishman went down the great river to the end of Switzerland, and converted the people there, and the town of St. Gall preserves his name and the memory of his remote retreat.

As civilization rebuilt Europe after the downfall of Rome, the Rhine became the main line of communication between the North and the South. In other places large commercial cities sprang up by the edge of the sea, where ships could ply from port to port. But the great towns of the Rhine had all the advantages of a seaport, without the risks of attack from Barbary pirates and other wild corsairs. So they have grown through the centuries into a line of cities of vital importance to the German people, until they have been able to rival the industrial supremacy of Great Britain and the United States. They have great coal-fields and iron-mines close at hand, and rich supplies of timber, and a broad, navigable river down which ocean steamers can sail for hundreds of miles.

The invention of modern roads and railways has not diminished the value of the Rhine, for the great waterway still remains the cheapest and most convenient means of transport from Rotterdam to Mayence. And beyond Mayence the great pines of the Black Forest sail down to the sea in the form of immense rafts, on which sometimes a little village of people lives. Even where the Rhine becomes at last a great waterfall, over which no boat can pass, it does not lose its value, for the power of the falling water is then turned into electricity, and sent along wires for many miles into the Black Forest, to drive machinery that cuts up the great trees, and turns them into tables and chairs and larger pieces of furniture.

The Rhine is, in fact, a kind of mighty Panama Canal hewn by the forces of Nature out of granite peaks and rocky tablelands. Behind it, feeding it and strengthening it and filling it, are the mighty glaciers of the Alps. It is an immense mountain torrent that grinds the peaks in its path to dust, and builds up Holland out of Switzerland and Germany. The rainfall makes little difference to it. In February-fill-dyke it remains at its shallowest. It does not rise till the summer sun begins to melt the ice and snow on the high Alps. Then it comes down in a flood, and the woodsmen of the Black Forest rejoice, and launch on the cold, swelling waters their great rafts of pines, that sail away to the edge of the North Sea and the saw-mills of Holland.

Man has tamed the mighty stream, but his victory is not secure, for the Rhine is a wild river, and often when it seems most placid and gentle it is really most dangerous. Sweet and soft is the song it sings as it ripples over rock and reed, and an old Rhenish legend tells us that there is a fatal charm in its music. On a wild, high rock above the deepest part of the stream, a fairy girl is supposed to sit sometimes in the light of the setting sun. Decked with jewels, she combs her golden hair with a golden comb and sings a song of unearthly beauty. Woe to the boatman who listens to the wonderful melody! Fascinated by her song he sees not the rocks before him, he only looks above and as he is drawn upon the rocks he is engulfed, both himself and his boat. This is the wicked fairy the Lorelei; the spirit of the Rhine.

BINGEN ON THE RHINE—THE CITY OF THE WELL-KNOWN SONG BY CAROLINE E. NORTON

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THE WILD LORELEI ROCK OF THE RHINE, WHERE AN EVIL FAIRY IS SAID TO SIT IN THE SETTING SUN, DRAWING MEN AND BOATS TO THEIR DOOM

In the most rugged part of Switzerland is a land of high-lying pastoral valleys, peopled by a race of hardy herdsmen who are cut off by mountains from the Austrians and the rest of the Swiss. Around them is a wall of glittering peaks on which the snow never melts, and most of the passes that lead to other countries are from 6000 to 7000 feet high. Such is the land of the Gray Leaguers—a fighting race of peasants, who rose in the Middle Ages against their lords, won their freedom, and leagued themselves together into a little republic.

The Gray Leaguers remained independent until the nineteenth century, when they entered into alliance with the Swiss Confederation and their country, known as the Grisons, now forms a canton of Switzerland. Some of the Gray Leaguers speak Italian and some German, and some an old dialect of the country; they have no wealth but their pastures and their forests. Recently, however, their wild, beautiful, and sublime mountain land has become a pleasure and health resort for the tired and sick people of the European plains. A tiny railway has been made through the valleys, and many thousands of people come here, in summer and in winter, to ski and toboggan and skate in the clear, fine air of the uplands, or to climb over the glaciers, snow-fields, and peaks at the other side of which Italy lies, with long, sloping woods of chestnuts and walnuts and valleys covered with vines.

It is hard to say which of the mountains of the Gray Leaguers is the Rhine head. There are 200 mountain streams in the country which unite to form the great river. But the Gray Leaguers themselves regard as the head stream the torrent that flows from an ice cavern at the end of the Zapport glacier below the Rhinewaldhorn. This Alp stands over 11,000 feet in the sky, and is crowned with eternal snows. At its foot is a terrible and gloomy gorge—a wilderness of ice and rock.

The peasants call the place Hell, and in the midst of it is a patch of greenery known as Paradise. Thick with the mud of the glacier, the Rhine screams and whitens through Hell and Paradise, and flows into an open valley, and again falls in thundering foam. Then, strengthened by other mountain torrents, it swirls, green as an emerald, through the Bad Way. The Bad Way is one of the most remarkable sights in the world. Here the stream is only a few feet wide, and opposed to it is a mountain of black slate; yet, using the mud of the glaciers as a grinding powder, the Rhine has cut clear through the slate to the enormous depth of 1600 feet, leaving the tops of the black cliffs in places less then ten yards apart.

The extraordinary power of a tiny stream of flowing water is the thing that most strikes one while following the Rhine to its mountain home. Vast and ancient masses of rock, which the glaciers of the Great Ice Age only scratched, have been seamed and channeled and torn up into wide valleys by a trickle of water from the sun-warmed fields of ice and snow. Men have found, almost on the mountain peaks, lines of pebbles left by the Rhine when it was seeking a road into the valleys. There are deep passes in the country which the little river made and then abandoned. It has tunneled through mountains, and tumbled them in a wild heap of ruins into the valleys.

It is at Ragatz that all the glacier streams gather together in the broad, green torrent known from prehistoric times by the name of Rhine. Thence it flows northward for thirty miles to the Lake of Constance, cutting its way through the Swiss and Austrian

Alps, forming a wide, rich valley, which it has carpeted with soil and made extremely fertile. Unfortunately, it still continues to cover the bare rock with mountain mud, so that its bed rises and has to be banked up above the plain. When the glaciers melt, and the floods come down in May and June, there is always a danger that the Rhine will take back what it gave, and leap out of its bed and drown the rich and smiling valley. So the towns stand away from the river, and, like Feldkirch and Dornbirn on the Austrian side, and Altstatten on the Swiss bank, they keep to the foothills, where no flood can hurt them.

The Rhine is a river with a long memory. Some millions of years ago it did not flow into the broad, fair Lake of Constance, but turned aside four miles north of Ragatz and flowed through the Lake of Zurich, making a path that is used by the railway to Vienna. A mound now blocks the river, and the little town and castle of Sargans are built on the rising ground. But the Rhine remembers; and in recent times dykes have had to be hastily erected at Sargans to prevent the river, in a raging high flood, from sweeping down its ancient track and overwhelming the central regions of Switzerland.

Happily the hand of man has restrained the wild river ever since the dawn of civilization, and kept it to its course towards the large and lovely Lake of Constance. The result is that none of the Alpine lakes is so historically interesting and so important today as the great sheet of water by the town of Constance. It is forty miles long and ten miles wide and it tempers the climate of the lands around and makes them sweet and delightful. It lies 1300 feet above the sea, a long, bright, emerald stretch of water, engirt by a ring of orchards and sunny pastures and vineyards. The peasants are rich, especially on the Swiss shores, and renowned for their bravery on the battlefield. It is over 400 years ago since a little band of them smote the army of their overlord, the Hapsburg of Austria, and won the freedom they still keep. The descendants of these people are the best lacemakers and the most interesting men in Switzerland. It was they who won the great battle for freedom, and their passion for liberty survived in the wars of religion that followed the Reformation. The men of the higher mountain passes remained Catholics, while those nearer the valley adopted the reformed faith. The two split up into separate republics, the Outer Rhoden and the Inner Rhoden, and these old forms of government still continue. Every citizen is a member of the parliament for local affairs, and in Outer Rhoden 10,000 men assemble every year, in April, to make laws for the community. They come armed with swords to remind them of the days when freedom was not a matter of course but a thing for which men had to give their lives. When their chief is elected, his first duty is to bind himself by an oath to obey the laws of the commonwealth. His second duty is to administer to the vast multitude before him the same oath by which he has just bound himself. To hear the voice of 10,000 freemen pledging to obey the laws they have made is a moving and solemn thing. And it is inspiring to find that this race of mountaineers, that keeps to the most ancient way of popular law-making, has continually grown in numbers and prosperity. In their village church are the flags they have won in many battles—flags from Venice and Genoa, from cities in Germany and towns in Austria.

It was not until all the might of

Spain and Austria was brought against them, in the wars of religion of the sixteenth century, that the free Swiss peasants lost control of the Upper Rhine by losing the bridge town of Constance that sits in beauty by the green waters of the great lake. Constance is now a patch of alien territory in the mountain land of freedom, and the Grand Duke of Baden-Baden owns it. But its beautiful old buildings recall its glorious past, when it was a free town of the Swiss alliance, guarding the waterway and passes from Northern Europe to Rome. It has many connections with England. It was here that wandering Irish monks sowed the seeds of civilization, and founded abbeys and cities all down the river and along the mountain valleys on the old path to Rome. Later on, Wyclif's follower, John Huss, came to preach at Constance the doctrines of the early Reformation; the great hall still stands in which he was condemned to death by a conclave of cardinals; and close at hand is the place where he was burned.

In compensation, as it were, for the loss of Constance, the Swiss possess the old town of Schaffhausen, on the German bank of the Rhine. For a long time the Swiss did not seem to have the best of the situation, for just below Schaffhausen all navigation is stopped by the Jura Mountains. A line of limestone rocks crosses the river and forms a great waterfall seventy feet in height. The Rhine makes a wild and splendid struggle of it, cascading down in green, thundering curves and glittering clouds of foam. The shock of its fury stuns the ear and terrifies the mind.

But on closely studying the wild and picturesque waterfall we see that old Father Rhine has become a poor, feeble creature with a great deal of bluster and very little force. Here is a mere bit of soft limestone that he should long since have ground into a level bed. Both in Switzerland at the present time and in Germany of old he has broken through granite peaks and hard, high tablelands of rock; he has splintered the Vosges Mountains from the Black Forest, and has carved a great level plain between them. Yet at the Rhine Falls he cannot wash away the bit of soft limestone that divides his torrent and towers above the foam and fury of his broken waters.

The explanation is that Father Rhine has been tamed by the deep, still lake of Constance. He has dropped in the lake the granite sand from the Alps which he once used like emery powder to grind down the rocks over which he flowed. Moreover, the great lake has robbed him of his wild torrent force, and taken all his shattering, leaping strength away from him. But the Swiss have grown to be thankful that the river cannot eat away the limestone crags, for the waterfall has become the mother of many industries, and Schaffhausen flourishes exceedingly on its electrical power, while the valleys of the Black Forest hum for hundreds of miles with the tremendous machinery driven by Father Rhine.

Below the city of electricity the river recovers his old strength. Taking the waters of the Aar, he drains the immense glaciers and snowfields of central Switzerland, and becomes a stream of continental importance. Wide, strong, and swift, he goes under the bridges of the ancient town of Basel—a famous city at the head of the boat navigation of the river, forming the gateway into Switzerland.

The valley of the Rhine beyond Basel is very remarkable. It is carved out of a single slab of granite as big as a province, and the glacier-fed stream has made a level path twenty

miles in breadth between the dark granite fronts of the Vosges and the Black Forest. But all the towns, like Mulhouse and Strasbourg, stand some miles away from the river, because of the danger of floods. The river valley here forms the old frontier between France and Germany, which was re-established at the close of the recent war. The towns have suffered terribly in old and recent battles.

The Rhine is a river of tears. Its romance is born of the fiercest passions of men, of cruel and hateful things, now seen in the moonlight of the past, veiled and softened by the mist of ages. For it was so glorious a possession that greedy, ambitious men continually fought and intrigued and betrayed to win a place of power on it. Save where the people of some town were so roused by oppression that they turned on their tyrant—bishop, lord, or prince—and won their freedom, the story of the Rhine is a story of sorrow.

Its bustling modern towns are cheerful enough. For instance, there is Mannheim, above Strasbourg, built in straight streets with numbers instead of names, like some American city, humming with commerce and industry. And the new parts of Frankfort and Cologne wear the same air of comfort and business. They represent the spirit of modern Germany. There are many fine qualities in this spirit, but the great soul of the Germanic races is something larger and stronger, and when all the German people learn true liberty, they will do still noble things for civilization. For long years Germany was in the feudal ages in matters of government, in spite of its achievements in science and in industry.

Above Mannheim, the Rhine flows past the old towns of Worms and Maintz, which united together in the thirteenth century and brought about the league of the free cities of the Rhine. Out of the freedom they won came great events. At Worms it was that Luther explained his principles of the reformation of religion before Emperor and princes, ending with the fiery words: "Here I stand, I can not act otherwise. God help me! Amen." And before Luther arrived on the Rhine, Gutenburg, a son of Maintz, invented the book printed with movable type—the great instrument for spreading knowledge, by means of which our civilization develops. Farther on in the basin of the Rhine is the town of Dortmund, where lived the monk known as Berthold Schwarz, or Black Berthold, who experimented in chemistry in 1320, and brought gunpowder and guns into practical use.

These are some of the achievements of the Rhinelanders in the days of their ancient liberty. The Black Monk's terrible gift to mankind may not seem to have improved things, but gunpowder has blown up most of the castles in the Rhine valley. It is extraordinary how thick they cluster, these ancient strongholds, upon the rocks where the Rhine narrows in the beautiful gorge above Maintz, from Bingen almost to Bonn. In some cases the picturesque gray ruins were built by robber knights in order to take toll from all traders and travelers using the great waterway. They were little more than the haunts of land pirates, eager to impede and check commerce in order to enrich themselves; and though the castles now look very romantic perched on the wooded heights above the broad, green stream, it is well for mankind that they were at last blown up by gunpowder and left to moulder on the rock. It is here that the Rhine is a river of many legends, but they are strange and sad and tragical.

This part of the stream has a

AT HEIDELBERG, SHOWING HEIDELBERG CASTLE AGAINST THE MOUNTAIN FORESTS

THE RHINE AT COLOGNE, WITH THE CATHEDRAL IN THE BACKGROUND

wonderful natural wealth. Patches of the hillside of the size of quite a small farm, say fifty-five acres, produce in good years an income of $20,000. For the valley is one of the great vineyards of the world, and by careful and incessant toil the peasants keep the soil fertile, and bank it up in walled terraces on the sunny slopes of the hills. It is a wonderful sight, the grape valley of the Rhine, with its ruined castles, its wooded mountain tops, and the vineyards forming a sort of green patchwork quilt all down the steep slopes of the emerald river.

But above Bonn the mountains fall away from the stream, and the Rhine loses its romantic beauty and becomes a wide turbid, useful waterway, crowded with steamers, tugs, and rafts, and long, big barges full of every kind of merchandise. At Cologne it is quite an ugly river, with a line of factories on one bank and one of the beautiful cathedrals of the world on the other. But even the great cathedral of Cologne, and its other old buildings, cannot for long attract the traveler, for the city itself has grown commonplace, and noisy, and stifling.

Far more beautiful is the town of Dusseldorf, farther down the Rhine. It is a modern city, gay with trees and flowers, and some of its newest buildings are works of art which will very soon attract the attention of enlightened men of other countries. German architects, as in America, have developed a sound way of building great edifices out of concrete, and their work has a historic interest and a considerable beauty of its own. Within the next fifty years it may transform the appearance of the busy, populous, industrial cities that crowd around the coalfields of Westphalia, which the Rhine drains on its way to Holland. These cities stretch from Dusseldorf to Hamm, and are growing into a single expanse of houses, fifty miles long and twenty broad!

The Dutch part of the Rhine is uninteresting at first glance, but very attractive when we come to study it. The land for the most part is flat, but its windmills and red-roofed towns and villages, and its moist meadows thronged with little black-and-white cows, form a series of pictures with a quiet, subdued charm.

But it is the strange adventures of the Rhine that chiefly interest the seeing eye. It cannot get to the sea quickly enough, and it breaks away in all directions. A trickle of water goes north into the Zuyder Zee; it seems of no importance, but it is in reality the ancient Rhine keeping to his old path towards Norway. Then there is another Rhine, still known on the map as the Old Rhine, that ends in a small black pool some way from the ocean, at the junction of the Leyden Canal.

It is a piteous ending for the glorious stream that has carved its way through the mountains of Switzerland and Germany, and brought wealth and civilization and power to many races of men. But the fact is that in Holland the Rhine is overcome by its own work. In the course of ages it turned a low, barren waste of sea sand into one of the most fertile soils in Europe, by carrying to it a part of Switzerland and Germany.

THE BRUSSELS PALAIS DE JUSTICE: ONE OF THE WORLD'S LARGEST BUILDINGS

THE LOW COUNTRIES
BELGIUM AND THE NETHERLANDS

THE triangle of low land on the shores of the North Sea between France and Germany — lying in the grasp of these arms of the Rhine and about the lower courses of the Meuse and the Schelde where the great north plain of Europe is narrowest— has been known through history as the Low Countries, or the Netherlands, nether meaning lower. Small as the district is—not so large as Scotland— it has fallen into two distinct countries, occasionally united under one rule through the years. Netherlands, the hollow or marshy land, the northern and larger half, with its ragged coast, lies chiefly in the Rhine delta. Belgium, to the south, has but fifty miles of coast, and consists of the lowlands, drained by the Meuse and Schelde, and the highlands of the Ardennes, wooded hills about as high as the Cheviots.

It is a very favorite holiday trip now to go to the Ardennes from England. A quick passage of three and a half hours takes us from Dover to Ostend, and from there we can either make a tour round the splendid old cities, speaking vividly of the past, and closely dotted over the fertile and busy plain with its wide swelling rivers, or we can pass on to the beautiful walks and cycle rides, the fine views and interesting caves, the cool woods and bright streams, of the hills beyond on the southeast.

If we prefer a longer sea voyage we can enter Belgium by the estuary of the Schelde to Antwerp, a very great port, connected by rail and canal with not only the rest of Belgium, but with

BEACH AT SCHEVENINGEN, SHOWING KURSAAL IN BACKGROUND

CANAL IN VOLENDAM
Here are found the typical Dutch costumes of olden times

the industrial towns of the Lower Rhine, about a hundred miles away, and easy of access to the places across the ocean which send Europe the raw material that it cannot grow itself. Bruges and Ghent, also deeply interesting old cities, are connected with Antwerp by canals, and Brussels, the capital, is in the center of the kingdom, so gay, and full of fine shops and handsome buildings, that it is sometimes called a miniature Paris.

Let us now, for awhile, leave the busy and populous Belgium of today, and glance at the story extending over 2000 years, of the struggles by which the Netherlands have not only in the end kept their small corner of Europe independent, but which have so strengthened and educated the people that, for centuries, they have been the world's teachers in most of the matters that are worth knowing.

The Low Countries formed but a dull, damp district, shut in by the gloomy depths of boundless forests when we first catch sight of them in the searchlight thrown by Roman civilization. For countless ages the rivers, which we see are very numerous all over the land, had been steadily bringing down slime and mud, and the wind and tide had been occasionally dispersing and destroying the banks thus formed. The early Celtic people who chose these shifting swamps for their home lived like beavers among the tangled brushwood on the islands at the mouth of the Rhine. The bravest of them were the Belgæ, who have left their name in Belgium, and, when the Romans came, several German tribes had pushed out the Celts. Among them the Batavians and the Frisians were celebrated for bravery and love of freedom and their determination to protect the land on which they dwelt. The Batavians proved of great use in the Roman armies.

In the fourth century, the Frankish tribes came swarming over the Rhine, and by degrees they absorbed the Frisians and the Batavians and the rest of the tribes living in the morasses and low plains, till at length all the country fell under the rule of the great Charlemagne. He left the people their native customs, and put chiefs over them as his delegates, whom they had to obey. Part of Charlemagne's plan was to give wealth and power to the bishops of the newly Christianized tribes, and for nearly a thousand years these prince-bishops were very important. After Charlemagne's death the great empire broke up, and under the weak rulers that followed, the independent nobles became ever stronger. There were the Bishops of Utrecht, where was the first Christian Church, the Counts of Holland—Holland being really a province, although we often mistakingly apply the name to the whole country.

The Dukes of Brabant and the Earls of Flanders—William of Normandy took his bride from Flanders—were very important nobles as well as the lords of Hainault, which also gave an English queen. Other small states were Guelderland and Friesland. The old laws of the Frisians declare that the race shall be free, as long as the wind blows out of the clouds and the world stands, and this principle has always been kept in view even in times of overwhelming trouble.

THE RISE OF WEALTH AND POWER OF THE CITIES OF THE NETHERLANDS

These were the bad old feudal days, when the nobles were forever quarrelling among themselves, and, according to their opportunities, doing their best to take away the liberties of the people. The prince-bishops gained more and more power over men's minds, till no one dared to think for himself.

BRUGES—THE VENICE OF THE NORTH

A characteristic scene in the city of Bruges, the whole of which is intersected by canals. In the Thirteenth Century Bruges was the chief commercial city of Europe, but now it is a Fifteenth Century fossil.

We know how the rise of important towns has always helped on the cause of freedom, and though the towns in the Netherlands, are not quite so old as some in France, Italy, and Germany, most of them date from early times. When trade was set moving by the impulse of the Crusades, the towns of the great north and south route began to rise from small beginnings to wealth and power. In the thirteenth to the fifteenth century, the towns of the Netherlands did much business with the towns of the famous Hanseatic League. In the fourteenth century there were over 3000 woollen manufactures around Malines, now the center of the Belgian railway lines; Ghent had 40,000 weavers, and the goldsmiths of Bruges were numerous enough to form a regiment by themselves in time of war.

THE MAKING OF THE DUTCH RACE AND ITS GREAT FIGHT AGAINST TYRANNY

All this effort for generations produced a wise and determined race, few in numbers, and living in a small country, yet able to resist in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries the fierce tyranny of the most powerful of the sovereigns of Europe.

A dark cloud began to grow over the Netherlands, when by seizure, purchase, succession, marriage of heiresses, the most considerable of its states passed under the sway of the Dukes of Burgundy. There was one duke so strong that he used to make war on the King of France. This was Duke Charles the Bold. From the daughter and sole heiress of this bad as well as bold man were wrested charters of privileges, commonly called the Great Charter—afterwards the

foundation of greater liberty by the first regular assembly of the States General, the members of which were sent from the provinces and great cities of the Netherlands.

This young duchess, Mary, married Maximilian of the Hapsburg family, Duke of Austria, and later Emperor of Germany. Their son, Philip, succeeded to his mother's dominions, and he married Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, elder sister of Queen Catherine of England.

Their son was the famous Charles V, who gathered into his hand the rule of the Netherlands with that of Spain and Austria. All these countries hated each other, and the liberties of the Netherlands were in terrible danger from a prince who firmly believed that he had the sole right of disposing of the persons and lives of his subjects, as well as settling their faith and religion.

Charles, in spite of his wide empire, was always in want of money, and he required the rich cities of the Netherlands, especially of Ghent, to furnish it whenever he chose to ask for it, and when denied, took away all the charters and rights of those who opposed him, and fined and executed the citizens.

A MAN WITHOUT PITY, WHO SENTENCED A WHOLE NATION TO DEATH

His son, Philip II carried out his father's plan only too well, and when the unhappy people prepared to rise in revolt against his cruelties and extortions, he sent the Duke of Alva, a great soldier, but a man absolutely without pity, to suppress them. Almost the entire population of the Netherlands was sentenced to death without even the form of a trial, and people were suddenly seized and put to death without farther warning, till there was not a family who was not bereft.

A national hero rose up at this time, William the Silent, Prince of Orange. His ancestors had done good service to the House of Burgundy, and William was brought up under the eyes of Charles V. When the worn-out emperor laid down all his crowns to go into a monastery, it was on William's arm that he entered the great hall at Brussels, capital of the Duchy of Brabant, where the brilliant ceremony of renunciation took place.

William very soon ceased to be friends with Philip of Spain, though for years he was called his lieutenant; and after he openly became a Protestant he was the leader of the opposition to the bloodthirsty Alva. The patriots called themselves, at first in grim joke, the Beggars. Sometimes they won, especially at sea, sometimes the Spaniards had the best of it, and the struggle went on for many years under different governors and generals.

HOW THE MEN OF LEYDEN CUT THE DYKES AND SAVED THEIR CITY

Stories of the heroism shown in this war of independence are told of nearly every town, every acre of the Low Countries. The sieges of Haarlem and of Leyden are among the most memorable. Leyden held out a whole year, except for a brief respite, and the heroic defenders were reduced to awful starvation, but still would not give in. There were fights on the slippery ice in the bitter winter. As a last resource, the dykes were cut, and the water flowed over the hardly won fields, sending the Spaniards away in haste lest they should be drowned; but now the ships that had been waiting almost within sight could come right up to the walls of the town, bearing the precious food to the starving inhabitants.

HOW THE CHILDREN CRIED IN THE STREETS WHEN WILLIAM THE SILENT WAS KILLED

But scenes of war, of sacking fine cities, of senseless cruelty in persecu-

tion, could not last forever, and after several unsuccessful attempts at union among the provinces, and at making peace with Spain, in 1581, Dutch independence was declared. William the Silent, "Father William," as he was affectionately called, was the head of the new republic. It was nearly seventy years before Spain gave up all claims and titles, and acknowledged the complete independence of the Dutch.

Three years after the Declaration of Independence, the wisest man in the land was murdered by a ruffian hired by Spain. As long as William the Silent lived he was the guiding star of a brave nation, and when he died the little children cried in the streets.

War still went on under his son, Maurice, and the southern states, with their great towns of Antwerp and Ghent, and many others, were reduced to obedience to Spain for many years after the northern states became free. Protestantism had been stamped out, the brave Flemish workers had been driven to the Netherlands or to England, to their great and lasting benefit, and the subdued country lay in poverty and exhaustion. Ten years after the rout and ruin of the Armada, started by the fire-ships and the storm off the coast of Flanders, Philip II died, after a reign of 42 years.

It was in 1600 that Queen Elizabeth formed an East India Company to trade abroad, as all commerce had been so hindered by the ambitious plans of Spain. The Dutch followed suit two years later. Much money was spent on fleets and ports and factories and from these days the Dutch sailors—trained in the wild fishing-grounds of the North Sea—were to be found all over the world taking possession of the Spanish and Portuguese colonies, and often hotly contesting with the English. New Amsterdam, afterwards New York, was founded across the Atlantic, and to this day both city and people bear witness to the Dutch founders. The city of Batavia was founded in Java, called after the old island province, the kernel of the mother country, and

TYPICAL DUTCH WINDMILL

the New Batavia is the headquarters of the Dutch colonial empire to this day. Amsterdam and Rotterdam and all the old cities now revived, as trade flowed in with the arrival of ships laden with "sugar and spice, and all that's nice," at the busy quays.

How the Lakes and Marshes were changed into Rich Meadow Lands

As soon as peace gave leisure, pumping works were established to drain lakes and marshes, and the rich meadow land thus gained fed the fin-

THE FAMOUS BATTLE OF WATERLOO, NEAR BRUSSELS, BETWEEN NAPOLEON AND THE ALLIES

The battle of Waterloo, perhaps the most celebrated in history, was desperately fought. Thousands of French riders, unable to check the mad rush of their steeds, plunged into a great ditch and perished. The defeated Prussians rallied and came to Wellington's aid and Napoleon's cause was lost.

est cattle in Europe. Dutch butter and cheese have long been famous all over the world. Other uses to which the land gained from the sea was put were to grow roots for food and various kinds of hay, besides bulbs of beautiful flowers like tulips. The Dutch taught all Europe how to garden and farm. The Netherlands also became the printing-house of Europe, sending out thousands of books of history and travel, law and medicine. Trades, too, such as diamond-cutting —still largely carried on at Amsterdam—gave employment to very large numbers of skilled workmen. It was in the seventeenth century that the rivalry between the Dutch and English on the high seas came to be war. There were many famous admirals, many brave seamen on both sides.

In the age of Louis XIV, France made several conquests in the Spanish Netherlands, which had passed to Austria, and the Dutch, too, had a share of French aggression. To save the country, the dykes were opened. Later, the waters froze, and when the French troops were marching over the ice to attack the Hague, a sudden thaw alone saved the country from destruction. The head of the republic at this time was the great-grandson of William the Silent. His name was also William, and he married Mary, the daughter of James II, king of England.

A hundred years later came the French Revolution and the map of Europe was completely changed, and bewildering changes came to the Low Countries, both north and south. The seven united provinces were turned into the Batavian Republic, and a few years later Napoleon turned it into a kingdom for his brother Louis. But that did not last long. He took his brother away and joined the Netherlands and all the other provinces to France. "They are but the sediments of French rivers," said he, "and therefore clearly belong to me." The decisive battle, which confirmed the downfall of Napoleon, was fought at Waterloo, not far from Brussels.

THE MODERN KINGDOMS OF BELGIUM AND THE NETHERLANDS

When the Congress at Vienna remade the map of Europe, the whole of the Netherlands was joined into a single kingdom under another William, Prince of Orange. But the northern and southern provinces did not agree about religion—the south being chiefly Roman Catholic—and they differed on many other matters, too; so, in 1830, they revolted, and the old Spanish Netherlands, that were afterwards Austrian, became the Kingdom of Belgium, under a German Prince, Leopold of Coburg.

The northern provinces went on as the Kingdom of the Netherlands, or Holland, under the Prince of Orange. The descendants of Leopold and William are still on the thrones of the two countries.

Belgium made immense strides in the course of years, and is now one of the most densely populated countries in the world. The great coalfield of the north of France passes into Belgium where the railway lines are so thick, and there are mines of iron and zinc and factories of all kinds, where thousands of people toil hard. Liege, on the Meuse, is a great engineering center, and in many towns linen is made from flax grown in the neighborhood, and bleached with the waters of the rivers.

Ghent is the chief textile center, making both cotton and woolen goods. Great quantities of sugar are made from the beet roots that grow

in the fields. Belgium is also famous for fine lace.

A WONDERFUL BELGIAN PRINTING-HOUSE THAT HAS REMAINED UNCHANGED FOR 300 YEARS

It is a wonderful sight to watch the shipping from all parts of the world at Antwerp, from whose quays and docks the industrious kingdom sends away a great deal of its work, and receives the greater part of its raw material.

Among the surpassing interests of Antwerp is the famous old printing-house, the Musee Plantin, with the types and tools all left in their places just as they were used in the sixteenth century when the firm of Plantin printed prayer-books for Philip II.

In the cities of Belgium and the Netherlands the story of the past is perpetually before our eyes. Fine cathedrals and churches, grand town halls and buildings of all kinds, together with the pictures and relics they contain, are like speaking witnesses which link the past with the present.

THE FAMOUS HALL IN YPRES AND THE BELFRY IN BRUGES

The towns of the old Flemish plain have all had an interesting story. They were reclaimed from barren fields and have been turned into productive places through the hard work of the Belgians. The noted hall of the clothworkers guild in Ypres was long an example of splendid Gothic architecture. It was also an expression of civic accomplishment. During the World War this famous old structure was burned by the Germans.

Bruges is another town of the plain that has memories of a sturdy past and also a busy present. It was this town and the old belfry that inspired our poet Longfellow to write the familiar lines:

"In the market place of Bruges
Stands the belfry old and brown;
Thrice consumed and thrice rebuilded,
Still it watches o'er the town."

WHAT "POLDERING" DOES FOR THE NETHERLANDS

If we went up in an airplane we might see all of the Netherlands at once for it really is a little country with only one-three-hundredth of the land area of Europe. We should see three great gulfs, and the great one is called the Zuider Zee. The low country below us would lose a third its area if the dykes and dunes were to give way. The thrifty Dutch people have resorted to "poldering," which means building walls and pumping out water and reclaiming land from the sea. There is a saying that "God made the water and Holland made the land." Thousands of acres are thus coming into use for grazing or even for tilling and raising the many crops that the Dutch are famed for. Back as far as the 13th century the Dutch were reclaiming land and as early as the 15th century the water mills were working to lift the water out into canals and take it away. A "gang" of mills is often used and the last one is called a "kicker-out," for it pours the water into the canal.

There are two stages in which we find reclaimed land, one being suitable only for grazing and called "green" land. The other has been made suitable for agriculture and is called "black" or tillable soil. There is a saying that a cow "eats with five mouths" when grazing in too wet pastures and making heavy imprints with her feet. The letters N. A. P. are common and mean Niew Amsterdamsch Peil, or New Amsterdam Level. This necessary water level is watched zealously for the life of the people depends on keeping the water within bounds.

The government keeps on hand elaborate plans for flooding the land against an enemy should occasion demand. This would be done only as a last resort and then only just enough to serve the purpose.

THE DUTCH PEOPLE AT WORK AND AT PLAY

The Dutch are a thrifty people and their activities lie in many directions. A traveler in the old town of Volendam will see the typical fisher folk in their picturesque costumes. They have now given up coastal fishing and keep to their own waters. The advent of the first herring is the signal for a parade with decorated barrels and loud clamor of vendors.

Our great historian, Motley, said: "Their cattle, grazing on the bottom of the sea, are the finest in Europe, their agricultural produce is of more exchangeable value than if Nature had made their land to overflow with wine and oil." And indeed the little farms are a delight to the eye. All seem to live happily and they co-operate in growing and marketing their products.

The landscape, so often one of silver gray half tints, is changed to vivid color in April when the tulips and hyacinths burst into bloom. The bulbs of these and other flowers are of the finest and are sent all over the world. The Dutch nurseries, vegetables and fruits are in the front rank with those of any land. Added to the Dutch exports are the many products of their rich colonies in the far east. From Borneo and Sumatra and the other isles come teak and bamboo, nutmegs and cloves, tea, coffee and all manner of tropical products. In fact the colonies have several times as many inhabitants as the parent country.

As we leave the Netherlands we will wish to linger a bit at the interesting beach resorts which dot the coast. Scheveningen and others provide playgrounds and recreation centers of great charm.

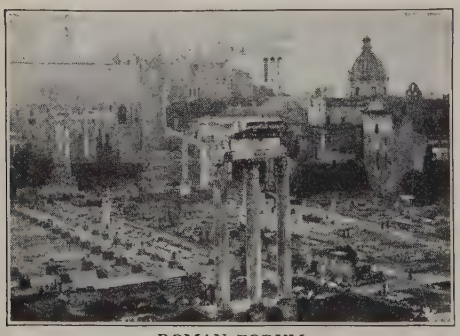
Dutch pictures by E. B. Hubbell **FISHER FOLK IN VOLENDAM**

ITALY—THE LAND OF ART

AT the south of Europe stretching out like a long arm or crooked finger into the Mediterranean Sea lies "Sunny Italy," the land of marble and of art. Italy

MILAN CATHEDRAL

is not a large country, having an area equal to that of our state of Nevada or twice that of Illinois, yet it contains in this small space cities which have dominated the world in commerce, religion, art, architecture and history. Rome, Venice, Florence, Genoa, Naples, Pisa and Milan are names which will live forever. Nowhere else can one find the things of culture in such abundance and perfection as in Italy. Every hospital, monastery or municipal building is crowded with priceless frescoes and adorned with inimitable creations in marble and bronze. Wherever the Italian painter was allowed a few yards of available space, one is amazed to find the history of Israel, the life of St. Francis, or an entire system of philosophy worked out in the most wonderful colors in glass, mosaic or oil. Is it any wonder that in such an environment men like Michelangelo, Titian, Galileo, Julius Caesar, Columbus and Dante, did such magnificent work?



ROMAN FORUM

Geographically we can divide Italy into three divisions—Upper, Middle and Southern Italy, the general character and the language of the population of each being very similar. Around the coast of the mainland there are a number of islands of which the largest are Sicily, Corsica and Sardinia. Corsica is especially interesting as the birthplace of Napoleon Bonaparte.

VIEW OF FLORENCE SHOWING CATHEDRAL

Historically we all remember Italy as the cradle and home of the mighty Roman Empire which controlled most of the then known world. In later times it became the center of the papal rule, and in Rome especially the place where the early Christian religion triumphed over paganism. The church of St. Peter is a fitting memorial, as it is the greatest church in the entire world. Due to jealousy of the powerful cities and of the

nobles themselves, a state of turmoil and discord prevailed in Italy and cities fought against one another until the country lost its unity and was unable to withstand the attacks of neighboring countries. It was not

MONUMENT TO CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS AT GENOA

until King Victor Emanuel II reunited the different cities, that Italy became strong again, and now it is classed as one of the great powers.

MILAN, AND THE CATHEDRAL THAT LOOKS LIKE LACE

Starting from the north, the first city to attract our attention is Milan, the commercial capital of Italy. Although a very old city (founded by the Romans in 222 B. C.), yet, due to the numerous conflicts in which the city engaged, most of the ancient monuments have been destroyed. Luckily the most important of all, Milan Cathedral, has been saved. This magnificent Gothic structure, built entirely of white marble, was begun in 1386 and after centuries of intermittent labor was completed in 1805. From a distance it gives one the impression of fine white lace as the exterior is decorated with no fewer than 2,000 pinacles, each crowned with a marble statue. It is capable of accommodating 40,000 people and in point of size is only exceeded by St. Peter's at Rome and by Seville Cathedral in Spain. Equally famous is Leonardo da Vinci's masterpiece, the "Last Supper," painted on the wall of the chapel of the church of Santa Maria della Grazie. It was from this masterpiece that most of the later artists received their inspirations and ideas for their religious paintings.

GIOTTO'S TOWER AT FLORENCE

THE CITY THAT GAVE US COLUMBUS AND PAGANINI

Traveling in a southwesterly direction we next come to Genoa, superbly situated on the Mediterranean Sea. Due to its situation, Genoa was

from earliest times active in commerce. As early as 400 B. C. it had a considerable trade with the Greeks, Etruscans and the Celts. After defeating Pisa in a long series of wars, Genoa became very powerful and owned many settlements in the Crimea, at Constantinople, Syria, Cyprus, Tunis, Algeria and Morocco. Due to internal feuds the great families of Genoa asked for the help of foreign kings and princes who in turn turned their attention to Genoa itself, so that gradually Genoa fell under of the sway of the King of France, the Duke of Milan, the Turks and later Napoleon I, awaiting Victor Emanuel II, who reunited the whole country.

One can easily understand how Christopher Columbus, in his boyhood days, seeing vessels from all over the world at Genoa, acquired that love of adventure and daring that led him to set out in the three tiny vessels to discover our continent, America. Whether one reaches Genoa by land or sea the first thing to attract the attention is the impressive monument to Christopher Columbus. Although he was probably born at the small neighboring village of Cogolato, he lived and spent most of his time at Genoa. It is interesting that Genoa was the first to receive from Columbus the offer of his plans and yet was the first to decline them, forcing him to go to Spain for money and ships.

The great violinist, Paganini, was born in Genoa. His Stradivarius violin is kept in the Municipal Palace in a sealed glass case. So skillful was this master that his concert bills were headed, "Paganini will cause his violin to be heard," instead of the usual form, "Paganini will play."

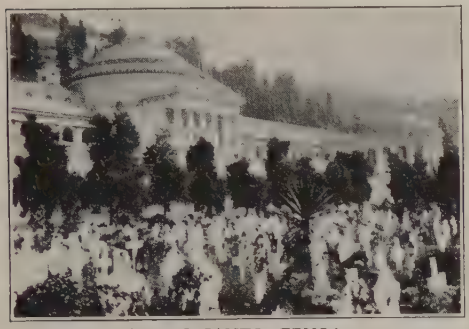
Equally famous is the Campo Santo or Cemetery of Genoa, situated in a picturesque valley backed by mountains, about two miles from the city. The monuments are of snow white marble made by the greatest sculptors of all Italy. High up on a terrace is a circular temple, also of spotless white marble, domed like the Pantheon at Rome. In its many colonnades are the tombs of the great men of Genoa. Lower down are multitudes of smaller graves, each with its slender marble cross, beside which often hangs a small memorial lamp. This is lighted every year upon the anniversary of the death. The cemetery is said to be the finest in all the world.

PISA AND THE TOWER THAT LEANS TO ONE SIDE

Following closely the western coastline we reach Pisa, the great rival of Genoa. Three buildings in Tuscan Romanesque style attract our attention. They are in a group and of pure white finely carved marble. The Baptistery is a circular building 100 feet in diameter and famous for its echo. The Cathedral is rectangular and built in Basilica form. In the interior hangs the beautiful bronze

CATHEDRAL, BAPTISTERY AND LEANING TOWER AT PISA

lamp, the swaying of which is said to have suggested the pendulum to Galileo. But the most important building is the famous "Leaning Tower," an imposing structure 176



CAMPO SANTO, GENOA

feet high and requiring 176 years in the building. It is round in form, eight stories high, and leans 14 feet from the perpendicular. Galileo took advantage of the leaning of the tower in his experiments with falling bodies. At Pisa there is also a Campo Santo, founded by an abbot, who brought fifty-three ship loads of earth from Mount Calvary after the loss of Palestine, in order that the dead might rest in holy ground.

FLORENCE, A CITY FILLED WITH ART TREASURES

Traveling directly east and half

POMPEII, THE FORUM AND MT. VESUVIUIS IN DISTANCE

way across the country in the heart of the Apennine Mountains we arrive at Florence, the stronghold of the Medici Family. It is rich beyond compare in art. The Uffizi Gallery contains the greatest collection of paintings of the old masters in existence. Due to their continuous fighting, the palaces of the nobles were of the fortress type, of which the Palazzo Vecchio or Old Palace, is a good example. It served as the Senate-House during the Florentine Republic and afterwards as the official

PALAZZO VECCHIO AT FLORENCE

residence of the Medici. This great building stood here in front of the Florentine Forum 200 years before Columbus sailed for America. It was for forty days the prison of the monk, Savonarola, where he was tortured, and then burned at the stake in front of the palace. In Florence the great Michelangelo lived and did his best work. Likewise Leonardo da Vinci was born near Florence. He was not only a great painter but a master in science, music, poetry and

sculpture as well. Passing down a narrow street we come to the house in which Dante, really the founder of the Italian language and one of the three great epic poets of the world, was born. Two centuries after the poet's death this house became a club where statesmen, artists, and scholars congregated, Michelangelo being a frequent visitor. Standing out above all other buildings is the great Duomo or Cathedral with its adjoining Campanile or Bell Tower, designed by Giotto and often called Giotto's Tower. Both the cathedral and tower are of white and black marble. The dome of the cathedral was constructed by Brunelleschi and is the second largest dome in existence and for design and simplicity is considered an architectural masterpiece. Likewise Giotto's Tower is called the most perfect architectural tower in the world. It appeals to us all the more when we consider that this masterpiece of variegated marble was built by a man who, up to the age of ten, was tending sheep and hence had very little opportunity to get an education.

In the Eternal City—Rome

The old saying is, "All roads lead to Rome," and from Florence it is a direct ride to the "Eternal City." Rome, from ancient times, was the center of Italian civilization and the Roman Empire and afterwards of the papal dominion. The "Seven Hills of Rome" are not very high, the largest being only 19[illegible] feet above the level of the city, but they are so situated that splendid views of the city with its palaces and temples are obtained from each hill.

The Roman Forum was from the earliest times the meeting place and commercial center of the city. Here all important business came to be concentrated. Hence the ruins we now see are of temples of justice, basilicas and memorial columns. Likewise we look upon the triumphal arches through which the great emperors marched with the spoils from their expeditions. To amuse the people the Emperor Vespasian in 72 A. D. started to build an immense amphitheatre called the Colosseum. This structure was about one-third of a mile in circumference, four stories high and capable of seating 50,000 people. Festivals lasting a hundred days were held here, at which thousands of beasts of all descriptions were slaughtered to make a Roman holiday. Christians by the hundreds were here thrown to the wild animals. In the Middle Ages the Colosseum was used as a fortress, and soon after fell into decay and for several centuries constituted the chief quarry, from which material was obtained for new buildings.

Through the martyrdom of hundreds of Christians and the incessant devotion and hard work of the faithful, paganism was gradually abolished in Rome and Christianity emerged supreme. As a memorial there stands the church of St. Peter, the largest in all the world. So perfectly are all the parts proportioned, that very few people can get any idea of its size from the first appearance. The greatest masters of Italy have given their best in painting and sculpture to this church. Adjoining it is the Vatican, or palace of the popes. The finest part is the Sistine Chapel whose crowning beauty is the wonderful ceiling painted by Michelangelo, together with the Last Judgment painted on the altar wall.

Down beneath the city are the Cat-

acombs, those subterranean burial places and passages where the Early Christians held their secret meetings and buried their dead to avoid Roman persecution. If placed in one continuous line these passages which

POMPEII, GENERAL VIEW

cross and recross one another would extend the entire length of Italy.

In the Neighborhood of Old Mount Vesuvius

From Rome it is but a short trip to Naples whose location is one of finest in the world. Situated on the turquoise blue Bay of Naples and backed by the Miseno Mountains, the views in all directions are superb. A few miles to the southeast Mt. Vesuvius rises directly from the plain, its smoking top reminding us that at its feet is buried Herculaneum and a short distance away Pompeii. Both cities were destroyed by the volcano, Herculaneum by molten lava which hardened and prevented excavations to any extent, and Pompeii by ashes and pumice, which, due to their soft texture, enabled that city to be excavated. From Pompeii we can gain a very accurate knowledge of how the early Romans lived. By taking an auto from Naples we can ride along the wonderfully scenic Amalfi Drive, which winds in and out among the mountains and skirts the shores of the Mediterranean around the most southern end of the "Boot of Italy." As we leave Naples and pass through the narrow streets we see the typical Italian sights of macaroni drying in the sunshine, the Italian macaroni eaters, Neapolitans receiving milk at their door steps direct from the goats or cows, outdoor stoves, where omelets are cooked while you wait, and the many peddlers of all sorts of wares. Further on, passing through olive, orange and lemon groves, we gradually emerge at Sorrento, the city where Caruso died and where Marion Crawford lived and wrote his novels of Italian life. From here one can take the boat to visit the wonderful Blue Grotto at Capri, or the Island of Sicily, which forms a rough triangle lying off the mainland.

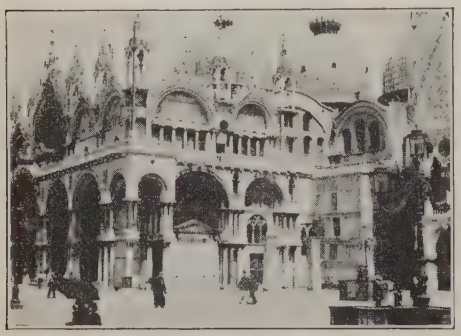
Venice, the City Built on Many Islands

In retracing our steps from the south of Italy toward the north and along the eastern coast, which borders on the Adriatic Sea, few important towns are encountered until at the very northeastern portion we come to Venice, the "Queen of the Adriatic." This unique city is built on piles on 117 small islands, inter-

DOGES' PALACE, VENICE

sected by dozens of canals, and connected by many bridges. Venice owes its existence to the ravages of the barbarians who overran Italy and compelled many of its inhabitants to

seek refuge in the islands formed in the lagoons of the Adriatic. Secure there from trouble, Venice grew rapidly in power. Her merchants became the wealthiest in Europe, and she became the great carrier of the trade between the East and the West, extending her boundaries all along the eastern coast of the Adriatic. Internal jealousies and wars gradually



CHURCH OF ST. MARK'S, VENICE

AMALFI DRIVE

weakened Venice, and not until Italy defeated the Austrians in 1866 and Venice was made a part of the mother country did she regain any of her ancient importance.

The Doges' Palace and the Church of St. Mark's tell of the olden splendor of Venice. The former contains the great masterpiece of Tintoretto, "Paradise," said to be the largest oil painting in the world. The ceilings are decorated by the masterpieces of Veronese, Titian, Tintoretto and Palmer the Younger. In this wonderful palace the great Doges of Venice lived and ruled over the Venetians for many centuries.

The Church of St. Mark's is in the shape of a Greek Cross, each arm covered by a dome. In it are the finest examples of glass mosaic pictures in existence. This edifice contains treasures from all parts of the world. While being built the first question asked of the captain of any ship returning was, "What new treasure have you brought back for St. Mark's?" and upon his answer depended the possibility of his landing. Consequently the church abounds in treasures, such as columns from the Temple of Ephesus, one of the seven wonders of the ancient world, and the bronze folding doors which were once those of St. Sophia at Constantinople. The mar-

CA' D' ORO PALACE, VENICE

CHURCH OF ST. PETER'S, ROME

ble columns at the right and left of the main entrance are from the Temple of Solomon at Jerusalem. The famous flocks of pigeons are sacred birds to Venice, for in the time of Doge Dandolo, the Crusader, it was by means of carrier pigeons that he received helpful aid while besieging Candia.

As we ride down the Grand Canal we can study in the palaces the art and architecture of seven centuries, the Byzantine, Saracenic, Lombardic, Gothic, Roman, Greek and the Renaissance in all its glory and in its decline. For romance and beauty there is no finer sight in all the world than Venice by moonlight.

The Isle of Enchantment—Sicily

After travelling through the mainland of Italy we can perhaps look forward to a week, or better a month, of charming recreation in the island that Pindar long ago called "the best land in the fruitful earth," Sicily. It is the largest island in the Mediterranean and is somewhat greater in size than Ireland. Its story is a long one, going back to the Phoenicians who controlled it three thousand years ago. Situated between Europe and Africa this island has long been the scene of battle and in the eighth century B. C., the Greeks conquered it and the intellectual "Golden Age" was ushered in. It has been since 1860 a part of Italy, the "boot" of which used to join with the island in past geologic ages.

Let us enter at Palermo on the northwest coast. Here is the largest city, and the fifth largest in Italy, a metropolis that is truly cosmopolitan with all the nations bordering on the Mediterranean represented in its population, and telling vividly the story of how the different peoples have left their stamp. Going about in Palermo we find the purest Greek Doric columns, brilliant mosaics, and the Saracenic influence in the gay colorings seen on the carts in the streets. And a ride here is an adventure, going in a *carroza* with the horse decorated with a bright feather waving from the top of his head, and the driver arrayed in brilliant colors. The Cathedral is a mixture like the rest of the city, but its tombs of the Kings calls all our attention to the splendor that was once here. The church of Santa Catorina has the whole story of Jonah and the whale wrought in high relief and in brilliant colors. The Museum is an old monastery and is full of art treasures.

A ride across country carries us through rich gardens and orchards, prickly pear hedges and geranium beds. Coming out from many tunnels that carry us under the mountains we emerge at Messina, with its new houses, built since the great earthquake. Mount Etna rears its snow-capped peak in the distance, a constant reminder to look out for trouble.

Down the coast is the wonderful little town of Taormina, haunt of artists, with its picturesque streets, its goats, its old men weaving chair bottoms, its old women with their bright red kerchiefs.

Farther on is the city of ancient fame, Syracuse. We are reminded of the story of how the river-god Alpheus chased the nymph Arethusa clear through Greece and under the sea to Syracuse. And today the beautiful fountain of Arethusa stands in the center of the city to do her honor. And the temple to Athena still stands although changed from the time when its praises were sung by Cicero. There are the famous coins of Syracuse, there is the Museum, there are the sights at Neapolis, but we cannot even mention them all.

THE SWEDISH NATIONAL DANCE, DALECARLIA

The most important time for dancing is harvest time, when the peasants dance in the open air in their national costumes. The men wear blue frock coats, while the women wear skirts, the backs and sides of which are black, the fronts being striped green, red, blue and white. This front part from the distance looks like an apron.

A CHRISTMAS TREE

The tree is decorated with candles, which are lighted on Christmas Eve, the eve always being more important in Sweden than the festival itself. The candles are again lighted early on Christmas morning before divine service and placed in the windows.

SCANDINAVIA—LAND OF THE VIKINGS OF OLD

DOWN from the war-like vikings of olden days have come the sturdy people of the North who now live in Norway, Sweden and Denmark. The now independent isle of Iceland is also a part of Scandinavia. The family stock of these people goes back to some two thousand years B. C. and the tall men with long skulls and fair hair who lived in the north countries. A land protected by fjords and seas, by mountains and natural barriers has preserved the individuality of the men of the North. Formerly warriors, they have in later years become foremost in works of peace, and we visit them for lessons in co-operative work and listen with respect to their scientists, inventors and artists.

The old days saw a busy people carving wood and weaving tapestries, reciting sagas and singing ballads. The present day people cling to the old customs of thrift and handicraft and have formed leagues and guilds to perpetuate these national characteristics.

ICELAND, THE LAND OF NO JAILS

The island in the north seas that has the reputation of practically no crime is now an independent country, though sharing the same ruler as Denmark. It is a land of industry and the natives import iron houses from Birmingham, England. Wood is scarce in this "land of ice and fire." Ice caps, glaciers and geysers abound and it is too cold for anything but a short season of growing crops. In the intense brilliance of the short summer wonderful vegetables are grown rapidly. Ponies are used extensively and as riders, the inhabitants are without rivals anywhere.

DENMARK, THE LAND OF HANS CHRISTIAN ANDERSEN

Denmark gave the children of the world Hans Christian Andersen, but it is a country of many interesting sights. The city of Copenhagen is larger than San Francisco and produces some of the finest royal porcelain. The beautiful Exchange Building stands out with its tower which represents four dragons with tails twisted together. The Copenhagener often takes his outing by riding to the Forest of Klampenborg, which serves as a great park. The celebrated gardens at Tivoli are also famed as recreation centers.

The state has wished to hasten land ownership and has made a law providing that the humblest man may get a very little money together and then borrow nine tenths of 8,000 kronen from the government to buy a little farm. Thousands of these tiny estates, averaging a little over seven acres in size, have come to be owned by these so-called "Housemen." In the cities we find Colony Gardens. Co-operative societies lease unused city land and rent it to the working people. They then build little bungalows from old packing cases and rejected boards and after the day's toil, find recreation and profit in working these plots. The results show in an abundance of fresh vegetables and flowers.

THE HOME OF THE SKI—NORWAY

Norway has made skiing a "sport for kings" in very truth as a recent picture of the king on skis shows. No one is better than another when on skis, and the cry of "Av vei!" means that the way must be cleared. It is like our "fore" of the golf course.

In Norway the valley farmsteads are called "gaards," and are usually handed down for generations in the same family. A striking building on these well kept farms is the "stubbur" or storehouse. These are of a peculiar type and quite ornamental. The grain is stored above, while on the lower floor is kept cheeses, bacon and herring.

Up in Norway among the fjords, you can feel far away from the commonplace. The jagged rocks of the deep inlets and the mountains are of Gothic grandeur. The very towns are romantic in appearance and one wants to go on and on to the land of the midnight sun. Molde is a gathering place for yachtsmen from even distant countries. Further north is the old Viking capital, Trondhjem, with the finest cathedral in Norway. There is the place to eat the finest salmon in the world. Pushing still to the north we encounter the majestic Lyngen Fjord and deep within its rocky depths is the village of Lyngseidet. From here one may be able to travel out to visit those mysterious people, the Lapps. The town that is the furthest north in all the world, lies beyond Hammerfest. Here we shall surely be ready to turn back to warmer regions.

It was Roald Amundsen, a Norwegian, with the spirit of the old Norsemen, who first planted a flag at the South Pole. The blue and white cross on a crimson field will always connect Norway with this southern end of our world. The ancient Phoenicians surely find their logical successors in these brave sailors, explorers and merchant adventurers.

Work and Play in Sweden

There is much to see in this country which is about the same size as France, and where one may find the thermometer at 90 degrees on a summer day in the capitol at Stockholm and in winter completely under a snow blanket.

An expression of Swedish temperament may be found in sloyd, a word referring to the making of things by hand. Such a joy is taken in this type of work that it actually becomes play. A crusade to perpetuate sloyd has resulted in forming such organizations as the "Friends of Handiwork," and the Sloyd Seminary teaches sloyd to manual training teachers who come from the United States and England. Watch Oscar or Ebba busy at work hammering out a bowl or a pair of andirons and you have seen an example of what Sweden loves.

Prominent in Swedish life is the celebration of holidays and in these there is often a mixture of the pagan and the Christian. Long ago all Scandinavians were worshippers of such deities as Thor and Odin and the Sun, and customs of today among this Lutheran nation show the old traditions are not completely forgotten.

The Dalecarlian celebration of Midsummer Eve, June 23rd, shows old customs perhaps best. Gay costumes, untouched by the modes of Paris, are everywhere to be seen. The supper at the inn acquaints the traveler with the "Smörgasbord," a huge table where the guest helps himself generously. There is usually a prelude of folk songs mingled with religious hymns, and then comes the raising of the "Maj Stang," or May Pole. The Dance follows and the visitor may try his agility at a "Dalpolska," but if he is not nimble he may land in a nearby lake. About

SWEDISH NATIONAL DRESS

Dalecarlia is the only province in which the national costumes are at all generally worn, but they still survive to a slight extent in some places such as Leksand. The woman's dress consists of an embroidered bodice with white sleeves, a dark skirt and an apron and an embroidered cap. The man's dress very much resembles that of a Church of England parson, apart from the yellow buckskin breeches and garter ornaments.

BRIDAL DRESS, DENMARK

In Denmark a society has been formed to revive the old costume dances and songs, the members of which are called folk-dancers. They wear the old national costumes richly embroidered with gold and silver.

NORWEGIAN NATIONAL DRESS

The Norwegian national dress still survives at Hardanger and Sactersdal. The short skirt is of dark blue with colored trimmings round the edge. The bodice is laced with silver and the belt is made of metal. The head-dress somewhat resembles that of a nun.

two o'clock the dancers hie away to the mountains to welcome the sunrise, a survival of the ancient sun-worshipping custom. Later a light breakfast of coffee and bread is served. In the early morning church worship follows, celebrating St. John the Baptist's Day.

In Christiania and Stockholm

The scenery and the customs of old that we find in Norway are of perhaps the greatest interest, but we must take a trip to the two capitals. Let us go to Christiania, that beautiful little metropolis, with its fine hotels, its royal palace and its harbor full of ships; but it also has its peasants and honest country folk walking the streets and looking quite at home. There is a mountain right at the city edge, Holmkollen. A trolley and a hill-climbing railroad takes one to the top and there are cafes and villas and a wonderful view of the city and the Christiania Fjord and the white sails on the water below. And when we get back to the water we must surely visit one of the two Viking ships, each a thousand years old, that show how the Norsemen of old sailed the distant seas.

An overnight trip allows us to wake up in the great station at Stockholm, Sweden's noble capital. It is indeed a great city of almost a half million people, with its royal palace, its castle, its new city hall and its fine opera house. It reminds us a little of Venice, as its streets are cut by many waterways, but it is different in the streams being wild and rushing. Ferries and little steamboats are everywhere and business men and vacationists commute by steamboat.

PARIS AND THE FRENCH PEOPLE

PARIS is a city of many aspects and interests. It is rich in historic scenes and full of splendid buildings and monuments. It is the great ancient and famous city whose university was a home of learning in the Middle Ages; a city that loves liberty as well as learning, and has done not only noble deeds but ignoble ones in the name of liberty, blindly slaying evil people and good and wise people, like Madame Roland, who said as she went to the scaffold, "O Liberty, what crimes are committed in thy name!" and Lavoisier, who discovered the oxygen of the air, and whose head the Parisians cut off at the Revolution, saying, "The Republic has no need of chemists;" the city where bad kings and their ministers once wasted their lives while the people starved. One of those men, when told that the people had no bread, said, "Then let them eat grass!" And when at last they cut off his head, they stuffed that mouth with grass. Such were the evils which seemed destined to end in Paris at the dawn of the Revolution, four generations ago, when the poet of childhood and liberty, William Wordsworth, hailed the promise of the future, and said—

"Bliss was it in that dawn to be alive,
And to be young was very heaven."

He did not know Napoleon was coming.

HOME OF FAMOUS SCIENTISTS

Paris is also the great city of today, where the chemist Louis Pasteur, of whom kingdoms and republics have need, found that microbes are the cause of most illnesses, and where his followers work for human life; the city where a Polish lady, Madame Curie, lately found radium—not a bad second to Lavoisier's oxygen, and where men may listen to the living words of the

LAVOISIER AND HIS WIFE (FROM A PAINTING BY DAVID)

Lavoisier was the founder of modern chemistry, and in his laboratory in Paris was laid the foundation for this wonderful science. Here, too, his life was sacrificed to satisfy the frenzy of the French Revolution, and he was sent to the guillotine in 1794.

wisest and deepest thinker of our time, Henri Bergson, who says that the future of life can always be greater and nobler than its past. That is the Paris, herself noble in the past, and destined to a noble future, that we shall describe—not the Paris of the newspapers, where people are extravagant and vain, and where mad and bad men blow up motor cars and rob banks. Folly and wickedness are never far to seek, and are not worth seeking anyway; but the real Paris—the Paris of Paré, the great surgeon of long ago, who said, "I dressed my patient, God healed him;" and of Pascal, who taught that God is greater than our ideas of Him, and of Pasteur and Bergson—that is only to be found on the banks of the Seine.

THE GREAT THINGS TO SEE IN PARIS

Suppose we begin our tour of Paris in the Tuileries Gardens, where once a king's palace stood; but now the motto of France is "Liberty, Equality, Brotherhood," and the only divine right of kings, we begin to see, is the divine right to be kingly men—as was said by Carlyle, who wrote the greatest history of the French Revolution. Plainly, there are some fine lessons to be learned here by all who would know the proper purpose of governments.

Next we should see the most beautiful and famous statue, probably the most beautiful thing not itself alive, in the whole world. This is the Venus of Milo, carved out of marble by an unknown genius of Greece when France and England were the homes of savages only, then buried by the earth for ages, and dug up about ninety years ago, rather broken and worn—men always will argue as to what her arms were like—and now set up in the Louvre to show to all the world how noble and tender and nat-

ALONG THE GRAND BOULEVARDS

It is on these fashionable thoroughfares that the true café life of Paris may be seen at its best. There are numerous restaurants and other places of refreshment in this section, each with its own particular clientèle.

ural and dignified and beautiful the face and form of a woman may be.

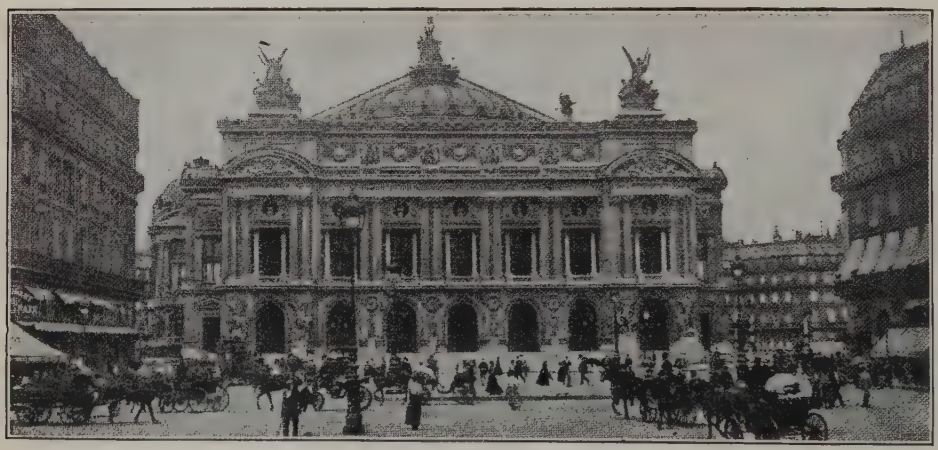
The great cathedral of Notre Dame, or Our Lady, named after a young village girl in far-off Palestine, is a great and splendid building, which she would have been very much astonished to see, and it has had a strange history, for soldiers have camped in it, people have gone to see dancing in it, the Revolutionists nearly succeeded in burning it; but some day, perhaps, it will be used, as it is named, in honor of motherhood, for

> A mother is a mother still
> The holiest thing alive

—and while all the world over people are beginning now again to honor and care for motherhood and babyhood, in no great city in the world are they so well cared for as in Paris today—for it was there that all our new interest in mothers and babies was started.

The coming of spring in the Bois de Boulogne, a beautiful wood near Paris, is a beautiful sight. Visitors go there again and again during a visit, because the things made by men in Paris itself drive them for refreshment to the pines and water and wild ducks and the grass and the day's eyes—usually spelled daisies for short—which grow in the grass of that wood. In the evening we go to hear a beautiful opera. It is all about Paris and the spring of a young girl's life; and the composer, who wrote the words as well as the music, shows us how even such a fine city as Paris is no more fit for a girl to pass the spring of her life in than for wild ducks to do so. Cities and their streets are all very well, but not for young people's homes.

This opera is called "Louise," after the girl whom the story is about, and at the end of it the spirit of the wrong Paris calls her; and her father, who loves her and lives for her, but has forgotten what it is to be young, drives her from home, and then breaks his heart for the loss of her. This is an old story of fathers and mothers and what happens when children grow up; and the lesson of it is that if parents and children are also friends, who understand and trust each other, and if cities are so made that they are not allowed to hurt young people, then fewer hearts will break behind their walls. This opera of "Louise" is perhaps the best that has been



PARIS OPERA HOUSE

Paris abounds in places of amusement of all kinds and the leading theaters receive a large sum of money every year towards their support. It cost over five million dollars to build the lovely opera house which we see here. Standing in the heart of Paris, it is one of the great glories of the capital.

written since Richard Wagner died, and can often be heard in America now. The Frenchman, M. Charpentier, who wrote it, has founded a home for young working girls in Paris with the money his fine work has brought him. So his music touches our hearts because it came from his.

The Parisians should take the hint from M. Charpentier, and do something useful with the great Palace of Versailles, near Paris. It is a huge place, with lovely grounds around it. The rooms contain nothing but miles of ugly pictures of battles on the walls, a few attendants, and a number of bored visitors, tramping on and wondering when they will come to something different—which they never do. In the grounds the children of the Republic play, and that is good. The Palace of Versailles would make a magnificent home for ailing and delicate children, as it could do at little expense, and even without injuring the acres of pictures on the walls. This would make Versailles into the finest and most useful building in the world; and instead of being a record and memorial of the dead past, and of idle and worthless kings and queens and courtiers, Versailles would become a palace indeed, a Palace of Children who are the kings and queens of the coming world. Do you remember the hymn of the new Chinese Republic?

> The wind is so sweet,
> The dew is so bright,
> The flowers are so fragrant,
> And men are becoming all kings.

Then come the pictures and statues of some of the newest artists. There they are, under the sky of Paris, only a few minutes' walk from the Venus of Milo and all the lovely old pictures in the Louvre.

A BRAVE BOY OF THE WILDERNESS AND THE BRAVE GIRL OF THE BATTLEFIELD

There is a wonderful picture gallery, once a palace, called the Luxembourg. Perhaps it is even more famous for its statues, and it has some beautiful statues of children. Here is one of John the Baptist, when he was just a simple little boy, but had already made up his mind to tell people that life was a nobler thing than they knew, and that a great Teacher was coming to tell them so.

And here are two of a brave girl, whose name was really the same as his, and whom the French call Jeanne d'Arc, and we Joan of Arc. She was born in 1412, over five hundred years ago, and in one of these statues we see her thinking over what she felt to be her duty of saving her beloved country. She was only seventeen when she began to drive out the English, who were invading France. But the French were divided among themselves, and the treacherous party captured and sold her to the English, who pretended to try her, and then murdered her as a witch, when she was only nineteen. There is another statue from the Luxembourg, which shows her at the stake. You will see statues and pictures of her all over Paris, in the churches and outside them.

THE TOMB OF THE GREATEST FRENCHMAN WHO EVER LIVED

The Pantheon was first meant to be a church, and many celebrated Frenchmen are buried there, among them Pasteur, the greatest Frenchman of all time, who believed that to work is to pray, for his favorite motto was *Il faut travailler*, "We must work." He explained more puzzles and mysteries than any man before him and made them plain. He said the plainest things are wonderful, and often said that "everything is a miracle." His body lies in a little chapel under a large, plain building in a dull side street.

Before Pasteur lived, nearly all diseases were mysterious, and men

stared at the moon and the stars for the explanation of them; but Pasteur made the causes of most diseases plain, and showed how to cure some and prevent most, if we will. For he found how microbes make one ill, and how we must protect ourselves against them. All doctors and nurses in the world today are the pupils of Louis Pasteur.

THE MAN WHO MADE THE CAUSE OF MOST DISEASES PLAIN

His is a living tomb, as it should be. This greatest fighter for man, who fought against death and folly and deformity and pain, has his mortal part in a tomb around which his generals live and work for life. For Pasteur's body lies in the Pasteur Institute, the center of the world for the understanding and cure of disease. In front of the institute is a statue of a young shepherd struggling with a mad wolf. He was the first person saved by Pasteur's discovery of a cure for the bites of mad dogs. Here the cleverest and wisest men have worked and do work for their commander, who, being dead, yet healeth. Here Professor Metchnikoff made the discoveries showing how alcohol intoxicates and weakens the white cells in the blood which he had already proved to be the defensive garrison of the living house.

Here Professor Roux did the work that helped to give the wonderful medicine which now saves the lives of many children all the world over every day, the "antitoxin" which prevents the toxin, or poison, made by the diphtheria microbes from doing any harm. Among the greatest of his generals, was Lord Lister, who applied Pasteur's discoveries to the care of motherhood and to surgical operations, has been said to save more lives in every year than Napoleon took in all his wars. And Pasteur saved animals from diseases in just the same way, by finding the microbes that killed them. He saved the silkworms of France, and thus her silk industry; he saved her flocks and herds; and it is reckoned that thus he saved France enough money to pay all the millions she had to pay to Germany at the end of the terrible war of many years ago.

A magnificent church has been built by the French as a tomb for Napoleon, who took from France so many of her tall and strong young men to die on foreign soil that the French are a short people today, and it has been said that not even Pasteur could restore to the French people the cubit of stature which Napoleon lopped off them. Never did such a conqueror go forth under a nation's flag, and never did a nation pay a more terrible price. There he lies under that vast dome—and all his famous generals lie round him. Professor Richet of Paris has reckoned that Napoleon's campaigns must have cost in all not less than eight millions of human lives.

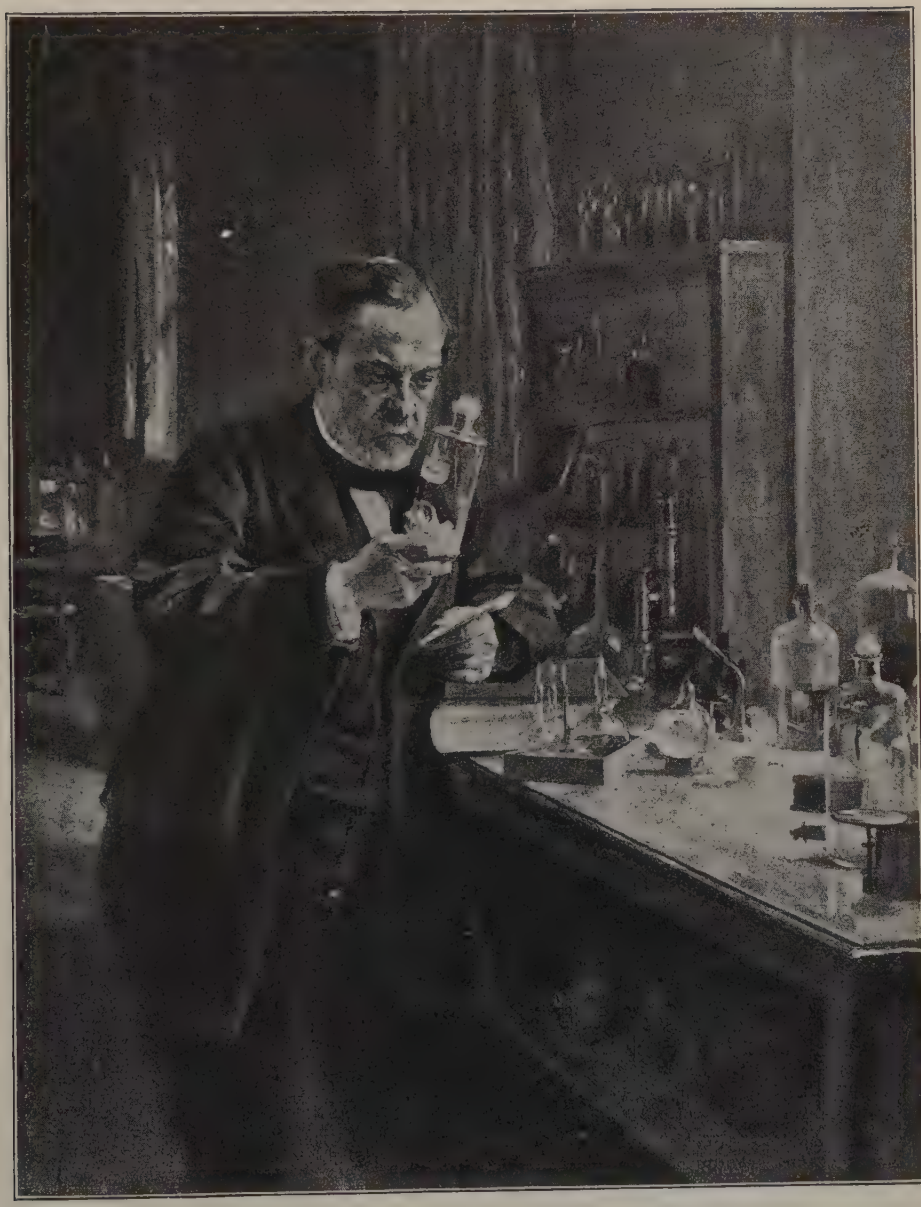
In the famous cemetery, called Perè la Chaise there is the tomb of the musician Chopin, whose lovely music makes many people happy, and gives them peace and rest, and new strength for life, every day.

In the Bois de Boulogne, life looks forward instead of backward, and there flowers may be gathered and enjoyed.

The big dome of one of the most famous observatories in the world may be seen in a trip down the river where the great astronomer of Paris, Laplace, taught men how the sun and the earth and the planets were born out of a fire-mist, or nebula.

PARIS FROM MONTMARTRE

From the steps of the Basilica of the Sacré Cœur, from the summit of Montmartre, that world-famed hill



LOUIS PASTEUR IN HIS LABORATORY IN PARIS

underneath which beats the sacred heart of the Paris of Parisians, you may study the panorama of the city's color.

Paris lies at your feet, not unlike a vast cemetery, an almost silent wilderness of stones; almost silent, for at this height the noise of the streets is nearly deadened and the movement of their traffic is absorbed into their shadows. But if you listen, faint sounds will strike the ear, a rising dust of human voices, something that resembles the whispering of a June breeze as it rustles over ripening wheat fields; a dream-like music, not sad, because it is made up in large measure of the calling of children one to another, but yet pathetic, for it is disembodied like a memory that comes from far away.

The sobbing of a calm sea's wavelets on fine sand, the baaing of distant flocks of sheep, are more or less vaguely suggested by the sound. It is not unlike the mysterious "summer hum," unearthly, yet of the earth, which still puzzles naturalists, and might be first cousin to the music of the spheres.

Rising from the stones beneath you, this attenuated symphony of noises gives them vibratory animation, much as the Mass music played on the organ within an ancient church, and heard from without, seems to be the voice of the building, the soul of its walls and towers and painted windows awakened into throbbing expression.

Thus the comparison with the cemetery is not altogether just, though, save for these haunting street echoes, the city down below has all the silence of the grave. The Invalides, the Pantheon and the Opera, with their green or gilded domes; Notre Dame, St. Sulpice, St. Vincent de Paul and a dozen other churches with their towers and spires, rise up, prouder mausoleums, from amidst the small fry of this ocean of tombstones.

After all, what are these human habitations, what is a city, but an agglomeration of graves, a cemetery in which each succeeding generation buries the unachieved effort and dead ideals of its predecessor? Or, if you will, a national fane—like royal St. Denis, whose towers are discernible to the right of where you stand—in which long dynasties of high thought and brilliant actions and gorgeous dreams, tricked out in the cloth of gold of victory, or swathed in the shroud of disaster, lie magnificently sepulchered?

A CITY OF INFINITY OF COLOR

Paris is a city of stone and her predominating colors are white with all its gradations of gray and drab, added to green and blue, but particularly blue. Her stone is a living stone with a human heart-throb, and, varying in date from a thousand years ago to yesterday, wears on its rugged surface an infinity of stone tints. Her stretches of blue-tiled roofs, with their red chimneys, form a high transparent canopy of rose-lilac over this stoniness which, gray in the mass, but burning white when the sun flashes on it, distinguishes Paris from New York with its red brick and brown stone and London with its yellow brick and stucco.

From the heights of Montmartre it is not possible to see the Seine. The inhabitants of this essentially Parisian quarter of Paris are shut off from the gleaming vision by an intervening barrier of many streets of tall squalid tenements, and few are likely to climb the tower of Notre Dame, whence the broad blue sweep of the queenly river best shows itself, dividing the city into apparently two equal parts from east to west, flowing onward in the sense of the cathedral's own peerless lines. Yet the Seine is to Paris as the tail to the peacock,

the supreme orchestral outburst of her color scheme. The brilliant white of the stone embankments as the blue and silver stream swirls through the city; the green of the trees that border them will be repeated all along the Seine's swift course to the sea in white chalk cliffs and siliceous banks, broad green pastures and hanging woods.

The Seine is distinguished from all the rivers of France by this dazzling body robe of blue, matching the sky, trimmed with silver and fringed with green.

Instinctively the blue and white which are the dominant colors of Paris have been adopted into the city's armorial blazon.

The Marne, on the other hand, which is only a Paris river by adoption—for it flows into the Seine at Charenton, just outside the eastern confines of the city—is always of a deep green, clear as crystal, owing to its bed being of a fine white clay.

But it is at night that the anecdotic quality of the color of Paris most reveals itself. The streets are aflame with myriads of multicolored lights, each of which has its peculiar Parisian suggestion to convey. At the same time the general color effect is extremely rich and variegated. Paris at night is as bejeweled as an Oriental princess.

A BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF FRANCE

To many of us seeing Paris is seeing France, but there is much more than the city and were we to take an airplane trip over this country we would realize the fact that over half of France is agricultural. In the north we would find the fair haired and blue-eyed types that have been in Normandy for so many years. In the south we would discover the brunette natives of Gascony and Provence. In the rugged regions of the Pyrenees there is still a different group known as the Basques, who have kept very much apart from the rest of their countrymen. We should see great fields of wheat and rows of vineyards on the sloping hills. The abundant crops are not nearly enough, however, and much foodstuff has to be imported every year.

In passing rapidly over the hills and valleys we should not overlook those places forever hallowed by the sacrifices of the World War. There are many of these and we should make out the Argonne Forest, the Marne, St. Mihiel, Verdun and Chateau-Thierry.

We cannot stop to see those great cities at Lyons and at Marseilles, though they have interesting sights. We are in the south of France and flying low along the French Riviera, playground of drives and promenades and sea views, we bid France adieu.

THE SWISS NATIONAL GAME OF "HORNUSSEN"

The ball is driven a great distance with a bat, while the opposing players throw up wooden disks into the air to stop it.

A CANTONAL PARLIAMENT

The cantonal parliaments in the open air, which are still recognized officially in several cantons of Switzerland at the present day, are of old standing. They assemble late in April or early in May, and are attended by every citizen.

PICTURESQUE SWITZERLAND

NESTLING among the Alps, with the jagged peaks of snow-capped mountains towering on every side, the little country of Switzerland challenges the interest of all the world.

COSTUME, BERNE

The peasant costumes of Switzerland differ widely; that of Berne is among the most noted. In some districts special bridal dresses are kept in the parish house and lent to those too poor to buy them.

In Switzerland we often find a strange mingling of pagan, Roman and Christian elements. The division of the country into twenty-two independent cantons has in itself tended to develop numerous local peculiarities, while to this fact we must note that no fewer than four languages are spoken and written in Switzerland: German, French, Italian and Rhæto-Romanic, each of which is subdivided into a great number of spoken dialects, and that the great diversity in climate and soil produces very marked differences in views and modes of life. So in connection with each of the three landmarks of human existence—birth, marriage and death—there are a great diversity of customs.

Among the many significant engagement usages in Switzerland, we may mention one from the Zermatt Valley by which the parents of the lass give their consent to the match by silently offering the suitor a taste of their old family cheese. In Val Verzasca, the courting was done by a symbol; the suitor placed a log of wood before the maiden's door; if she took it indoors, she thereby signified her acceptance of his addresses; if not he had to consider himself rejected.

In Valais, certain parishes own special costumes for the bride and groom, which are kept in old carved chests in the parish house, and are loaned to couples too poor to afford the expense of buying the prescribed garments.

Switzerland is rich in festivals connected with particular crafts and callings. In that of the Alpine herdsmen, the festive procession moves up to the pasture, led by the herdsman in his Sunday best, and the "master cow," often the winner in last year's cow-fight, carrying the milking-stool between her horns; the other cows and the hands follow in due order. The finest cows often wear wreaths.

The real Alpine festivals, however, are the kermesses, some of which take place during the summer, when the chief features are matches (wrestling, throwing, etc.), followed by a dance; others are celebrated in the fall, after

THE ALPINE HORN

The Alpine horn is, or was, commonly used to call back the cattle from the high pastures. Many herdsmen now employ it only to awake pleasing and sustained echoes from the mountains, a performance for which tourists are always ready to pay.

the return to the village, and then the festivals are on a larger scale, and include theatricals, flag-swinging, and more dancing, often assisted by wild-men masks, called "Tschämmeler."

In the actual Christmas customs, in Switzerland, as elsewhere, we find the Christmas songs, the tree, the presents, the Yule-log, and a host of spells, charms and superstitions as to the magic quality of this holy day.

New Year's Eve and New Year's Day, too, are rich in old-world customs, most of them meant to ensure abundance during the coming year. In Eastern Switzerland, especially in Zurich, the 2nd of January is kept as a holiday, with all sorts of jollification. On Twelfth Night, January 6th, the Three Kings go about with the Star, asking for gifts. Their initials, C. M. B., are written over doorways for protection against evil powers.

A visit to the land of St. Moritz, Lake Lucerne, the Matterhorn and the Jungfrau is a trip of enchantment.

The story of Switzerland is full of heroic deeds. The legend of William Tell has been celebrated in many a song and story. The bravery of Arnold von Winkelried, who gathered the arrows to his bosom is an epic. The Swiss put up splendid fights for their freedom and the country now exists as twenty-two cantons. Each of these is really like a little republic and has local government and open discussion of the subjects that concern all the citizens. The busy people of this little state, speaking several different languages, constitute a model in good government. Their use of the initiative and the referendum has led to its adoption in many other places. In some of our own states these democratic measures have been used also.

"TWELFTH-NIGHT" DEMONS, ZURICH (COUNTRY)

From December 25th to January 6th demons are very powerful, and many devices are employed to scare them away. Parades with rattles are common; often the demons are led about.

AN EASTER CUSTOM

Among customs connected with the Easter egg, the symbol of hidden germination, is a curious form of contest. A wager is laid between the representatives of two sides; while one of them is running to a given place and back the other has to pick up a certain number of eggs, sometimes two or three hundred, laid in a long row on the ground, and place them in a tub.

BLESSING THE CATTLE, SPRINGTIME, VALAIS

The blessing of the cattle by the village priest, which takes place every spring, is conspicuous amongst the religious customs observed by the herdsmen of the Alps. The most poetical is the daily prayer-call.

BEYOND THE PYRENEES IN SPAIN AND PORTUGAL

MANY a traveler foregoes a trip into Spain and Portugal because of the difficulties, or perhaps we may say, the inconveniences. In Switzerland everything seems to be waiting for the tourist, and every convenience is at hand to cater to his comfort. In Spain or Portugal it is different. Here the people stay at home and they expect the visitor to adapt himself to their own customs. Principal among the things noticed by the American is the poor railroad service. Trains make poor connections and often run but seldom even between large cities. And yet if we do not go to this great land beyond the Pyrenees we shall miss much of charm and color that is to be found in these somewhat backward countries.

As we enter Spain in the north, we do indeed come upon a world that is different from the rest of Europe. Perhaps we may feel that we have dropped into our western desert, for there is the yellow sand, the barren cliffs and table-lands that stand out in sharp relief against the brilliant sky. It looks as though rain would be unknown here in this land of little vegetation.

The old Spanish customs of Madrid

But, pushing on to the south, we come upon the capital city, Madrid, and finally we decide that there really is a Spanish life as well as an inanimate region. Probably we shall be sought out by the beggars that are everywhere, but as we get into the city we shall see fine ladies and courtly gentlemen in correct attire. There are the cathedrals and palaces, but to us the most fascinating sights are the people and their ways. Because of the hot sun, the better shops close in the afternoons, just when we in America are busiest. As evening settles down the sense of local color increases. Along the sidewalk are little wayside cafes where crowds are sitting at tables, while from the balconies float down the strains of music from harps and guitars. Gaily dressed vendors are shouting their wares. In the streets oxen wend their way, telling us that motors have not yet become the only means of transportation in Spain.

In old Seville

Spain is a land of many peoples. We cannot trace all of them, but we must not forget the Moors and the great influence they had. They really made Spain an Oriental spot out in the otherwise western world. Seville perhaps shows the Moorish influence most, and here we may see the famous Alcazar, the home of the old Moorish rulers. In this lazy old city a religious celebration brings out the color of olden times. The popular Brotherhood of Triana is shown in our illustration, as it passes through the streets en route to the hermitage of El Rocio, which means The Baptism. This annual event is participated in by all members of the belief, who march in gay attire.

In Seville, too, is a famous cafe where all the important bull-fighters of Spain gather. This sport is the national pastime of the country and is to the Spaniard what baseball is to our United States.

AWAITING THE KING AND QUEEN OF SPAIN
Women in national dress at the station in Salamanca

RELIGIOUS PILGRIMAGE IN SEVILLE
Brotherhood of Triana en route for the hermitage of El Rocio

GRANADA, THE HOME OF MOORISH SPLENDOR

A long journey brings us to quite a different part of the country, Granada, the land where everything looks fresh and green and where the orange trees waft their fragrance and the landscape is like a garden. Washington Irving has told us of the glories of the Alhambra and as we reach this spot we must summon our imagination to tell the story of what transpired there in the days of the Moor. The Court of Lions and every portion of walls and courts calls up stories of the past. Indeed, no other place in Europe has such a tale to tell.

OLD SPANISH TOWNS WHERE LIFE MOVES SLOWLY

Let us look in on the ancient town of Toledo, far different from that city of the same name in our own country. In this grim old place there was formerly produced the most exquisite work in gold on steel. Even today the manufacture goes on, but it is in a listless manner and discouragement is written on the faces of the natives who slouch along the narrow streets.

Again in Cordova we may pause, and reflecting back we gaze at a city of barely fifty thousand, which formerly numbered a million. In the olden days of Moorish greatness there were said to be three hundred mosques and nine hundred inns here, and life was such as to attract the whole world's attention.

MODERN TOUCHES IN SPAIN

But Spain is not wholly a nation of the past. Although the old local color of Madrid charms us we must remember that it is a big modern city, too. There are wonderful galleries and the original works of Velasquez and Murillo and many, many others hang here. There is the great National Library with over 600,000 volumes, and indeed Spain ranks high in publishing. There are today many examples of the finest tapestries and pottery being produced in Madrid, and these are telling of modern Spain to all the world.

Then there is Barcelona, the busy commercial seaport city, with two sections, the one filled with splendid hewn stone houses and the other with brick structures. Spain is not the old absolute monarchy we have heard so much of. With its new constitution the power is in the hands of a cabinet and there is considerable democracy.

A GLIMPSE AT PORTUGAL

A long train ride brings us into Lisbon, the capital of Portugal. Here is a city of famed mosaics, with its imposing cathedral and plaza, but the fact cannot be concealed that the country is backward. Women are seen carrying water from the streams and the most ordinary household conveniences are lacking. Out from Lisbon a short ride we find one of the beauty spots of the country, Cintra, a retreat that charms us with its colorful houses and its walks of palms and magnolias. It was to the nearby Pena Palace that King Manuel fled when the Republic was declared.

A prominent port is Oporto, the city that gave Portugal its name, and the Port of Cale of ancient times. Here the adventurous Portuguese sailors for centuries have gone forth to conquer and colonize, and indeed the commercial life of Portugal is quite important.

As a parting view, let us look in on Busaco, which isn't a city at all, but just a beautiful place. There is a palace of white marble there and though it was built for a king, we can stay there, for it is now a hotel. Through the long years monks have planted all manner of beautiful vines and shrubs and flowers here and it is a garden spot where one would linger. Little shrines have been built in nooks, and pools and tiny waterfalls abound.

The white line shows the railway between the Cape and Alexandria

VIEW OF CAIRO, EGYPT

A WONDER JOURNEY THROUGH AFRICA

ONE of the greatest romances of all time is being written in iron and steel from end to end of the African continent, where men are slowly building up a line of communication which we call the Cape to Cairo Railway. The very name of the railway is thrilling, for it means piercing the heart of this vast, mysterious continent. It will stretch for a distance of over 5600 miles, more than a fifth of the entire circumference of the earth; it will link together by the bond of civilization varying conditions such as can be found nowhere else in the world. The work itself will represent the highest skill of the foremost engineers in the world, reaching into places where civilization has hardly yet begun to dawn.

At the Egyptian end the railway will pass through the Land of the Pharaohs. It will pass—indeed it already passes, for the Egyptian part is complete—through scenes in which the earliest civilization developed — where men built great cities and wrought sculptures which are still among the chief wonders of the world. It will pass through the scenes of the life of Moses; it will carry grain and riches and means of life across the land which Joseph saved from famine; and it will touch, at Alexandria, the place in which, as far as we know, steam was first made the obedient servant of man.

The great engines will snort and puff and draw their heavy loads where Hero used to walk, the Hero who invented the first steam-engine, and made it open and shut the doors of the temple, so that the astonished people imagined that spirits turned the wheels.

Now let the mind leap forward two

thousand years, and see how little the uncultured human mind changes. When Lord Kitchener was building his railway in the wild Sudan, his work was watched by men such as had come, after the last of the Pharaohs, under the sway of the Greeks and Romans. The ancestors of these men thought that Hero had imprisoned a spirit in his little engine working at the temple. And the Arabs watching Lord Kitchener building his railway thought exactly the same, one old Arab chief solemnly protesting to Lord Kitchener that it was cruel to make the spirit in so small an engine drag so many trucks! At the same time, at the other end of the continent, the railway was built in Matabeleland, where black, naked warriors dwelt in childish simplicity.

What thought they of the white men's fire horses? To them the engines and their moving trains represented so many teams of oxen caged inside. When the trains stopped, the natives waited with wonder and excitement. "Why don't you let the oxen out?" they asked, imagining that the white men had chained up bullocks inside the engine and made them drive the trains. Old Hero, in his Alexandrian workshop, was two thousand years before his time—the children of the desert and the children of the forests are two thousand years behind. Yet the railway is for them, and could not have been built without their aid.

The contrast between these two kinds of people give us a clue to the changing scene through which the great line passes—just a clue and no more. For, starting in the north, where Egypt with its buried treasures lies, the line goes south across historic battlefields, where teeming armies fought for thirty years and Gordon fell a martyr. The shining steel runs on and on to the great lakes of Equatorial Africa; it passes through dim forest lands where pygmies dwell; it rushes through the haunts of lions which sometimes try to tear the drivers from the engines, through the homes of the rhinoceros and hippopotamus, and past places where jackals and hyenas howl at nights and mumble the bones of dead giraffes. It passes the graves of 30,000 poor, foolish people who, on the advice of their witch doctor, slew their cattle and left themselves to perish, because the medicine man had told them a god would arise from the earth to drive the white men to the sea and give their riches to the natives. It touches a lake three-quarters the size of Ireland, and another 2670 feet up in the air. It crosses the mighty Zambesi near the matchless Victoria Falls, where the sun makes rainbows all day long in the spray.

From lands of savagery to lands of gold

It rushes from savagery and the silent splendors of Nature to the lands of gold and diamonds, and finally it comes to the end of its journey at the foot of the continent, at Cape Town, with the blue waters of the Atlantic tossing and heaving as they tossed and heaved when Cleopatra was queen of the north, and the south was wrapped in mystery and terror which no man dare explore.

That is the Cape to Cairo Railway, not as it is, for it is not yet completed, but as it will be when the links now missing are forged. But it will never, perhaps, be a continuous line. No single train will go the whole way. For even when the line is finished we shall leave the train and sail some distance on the great inland waters, on lakes and on the bosom of the Nile. While this great railway backbone for a continent is being built from north to south, lines running east and west

will serve to link it up with other parts. The Uganda Railway is already complete, running from Mombassa, on the southeast coast, northwest to the inland sea which we call Lake Victoria Nyanza, a body of water 26,000 square miles in extent.

THE GREAT DREAM OF DAVID LIVINGSTONE IS NOW BEING REALIZED

On the west coast a line runs inland from Lobito Bay, in Portuguese Angola. So far 250 miles of this line have been built, and it is being hurried on to join a branch of the Cape to Cairo Railway at Kambove, in the Katanga district of the Congo Free State. The line from Lobito Bay will be more than a tributary of the greater line. It will be carried on to link up with a railway already running inland from the east coast at Beira. With that complete we shall for the first time have a line actually crossing Africa.

One of Livingstone's dreams will be realized when that is accomplished. When he was on the first of his great journeys through the land of mystery, he came upon a mighty river, 300 yards broad, right in the heart of the country. To his joy he found that it was the Zambesi, which had been supposed to rise hundreds of miles to the east of this point quite near the east coast. "Now I know there is a water way to the east coast," he said. But he did not follow it at once. He turned his face to the west. "I must find a highway from the west coast," he said, "for it is to the west coast that English ships will come, to bring money and goods in exchange for the things the natives have to offer. Once a proper trade is established, we shall end the slave trade."

LIVINGSTON'S LINE OF STEEL

He knew that regular commerce would prevent men from selling their women and children to the slave-dealers, and he knew that by finding a highway and establishing a proper route the brutal slave-raiders would no longer dare to carry fire and sword into the secret places of the land, to burn down villages and carry their people away captive. When he had found his way out on the west coast, Livingstone turned about and marched across the continent to the east coast, and it is thrilling to know that the first railway across the continent will follow practically in his steps. Lobito Bay, on the west coast, is near Loanda, where Livingstone came out: Beira, on the east coast, is near Quilimane, where he found himself after his great march to the east. He yearned for a railway along that route. It is coming, building fast.

The making of these railways in Africa stands for more than anything that has been done by engineers before. The line runs through deserts where there is no water. It runs across rivers and gorges and chasms. It runs up hill, down dale, and skirts mountains; it goes through forests and thickets where only wild beasts and wild men have their habitations. For a great part of the way the line has followed the track of men who went on just ahead, surveying and mapping a way as they traveled. The route for the railway was planned while the line was actually being built. Material has had to be made in England, Scotland, and Wales, bridges built in England and put up, then taken to pieces and packed in boxes and sent to African ports to be carried up country by bullock wagon, by railway, and by caravans of porters. Every tool has had to cross the sea, every engine has been carried out in pieces and put together on the spot. Mysterious illnesses have seized the engineers, sleeping sickness and deadly fevers have attacked the men;

The new homes—A modern village sprung up along the railway

The old homes—Huts of a wandering tribe near the railway

lions have killed and carried off scores of workers, the terrible "white ants" have eaten the telegraph poles and railway sleepers; elephants have knocked over engines, and natives have been hostile and dishonest. War has raged at both ends of the line since the work was started. The whole history of the colonization of this vast continent has, indeed, been compressed into the story of the building of this line.

In spite of all these difficulties the work has gone steadily on, until now, starting from the Cape, the line runs northward to Elizabethville, 2300 miles from Cape Town, and, starting southward from Cairo, the line runs for hundreds of miles south of Khartoum. It needs but the addition of about 900 miles of railway to enable anyone to travel by steam from one end of the African continent to the other.

Let us see what the route actually is. We start from Cape Town, and run up through Cape Colony to Kimberley, in British Bechuanaland, on to Mafeking, and across the Kalahari Desert to Bulawayo, in Matabeleland, which is now part of the vast territory called Rhodesia. Then we turn northwest and cross the Zambesi at Victoria Falls, after which we bear to the northeast and run right up Northern Rhodesia until we come to what we will call its middle boundary. Here, for the first time, the line leaves British territory. It strikes northeast into the Congo Free State up to Elizabethville, and there, for the moment, it stays.

At the northern limit of the western half of Rhodesia, there is a wedge of the Congo Free State dividing British territory. This great Congo State belongs to Belgium, and continues side by side with the western frontier of Northern Rhodesia, then along the left or west bank of Lake Tanganyika, right away to the southern boundary of the Sudan. But at the northern end of the lake it marches side by side with British East Africa, in which Uganda is included. Now it is proposed that a branch of the railroad shall run east of Belgian Congo and the lake through land that belonged to Germany before the World War but is now under British control. Lake Tanganyika is open to the vessels of all nations, so that we can continue our journey by steamer to its nothern limit, after which we should use Lake Albert Nyanza and other watercourses in the same way, thus reaching British East Africa and then the Sudan. From here we have the splendid Nile waterway, on which steamers are always plying, until we reach the railway which takes us into Khartoum, now a marvel of civilization, once the great slave mart of the Sudan. From Khartoum we ride the whole way by train to Cairo, and our wonderful journey is at an end.

It is necessary now only to bridge the distance between Rhodesia and Lake Tanganyika, and to fill in one or two other gaps, and the line through the heart of wealth and splendor, through savagery and wilderness, through terrors and mysteries all wonderful, will be finished.

The Great Man Who Lies on the Heights of the Matoppo Hills

It is a dazzling scheme, and the world owes it mainly to one man, Cecil Rhodes, who now lies buried in a stately tomb on the heights of the Matoppo Hills, past which the railway runs. Rhodes, an Englishman, went to South Africa as a young man and an invalid, recovered his health in the fine bracing climate he found there, engaged in gold and diamond mining, returned home and finished his education at Oxford Uni-

versity, then went back and gave himself entirely to the development of South Africa. When he took up railway building, the line extended only to Vryburg. He raised money and carried it first to Mafeking and then on to Bulawayo, which, until a little while before, had been the head village of a terrible Matabele warrior, King Lobengula.

It is now the capital of the great territory of Rhodesia, which, with its 440,000 square miles, is more than the area of Germany, France and Switzerland put together. After reaching Bulawayo, Rhodes had difficulty in raising money enough to carry on the work, for the cost was enormous, even to a millionaire, as he had then become.

Where the great Zambesi River falls into a yawning gulf

But, little by little, the work grew. Here a goldfield was discovered, here a copper-mine, here valuable coal or other minerals were found. The line was thus drawn this way and that, simply to tap districts rich in metals, and so make it pay as soon as possible. This accounts for the strange way in which the railway zigzags on its long course. It was the existence of a valuable coalfield at Wankie that drew it far to the west from Bulawayo. At first it was intended to build only a small branch line here, but ultimately it was decided to make it the main line, and, that determined, there lay ahead the great Zambesi and the Victoria Falls.

There was no turning back; the river had to be spanned. That being so, the line was made to cross, at its narrowest point, within sight of the falls, the largest in the world. There is one waterfall in British Guiana higher, but not so wide. The Victoria Falls are a mile wide and 400 feet high. We should expect that there would be a great drop in the land below the falls, but that is not the case; the banks of the river are the same height above and below. The river falls into an enormous crevice in the earth, descending with a noise like thunder into a deep but very narrow fissure, throwing up clouds of spray, so that natives, who used to be afraid to approach before Livingstone discovered the falls, named it "The Smoke that Sounds."

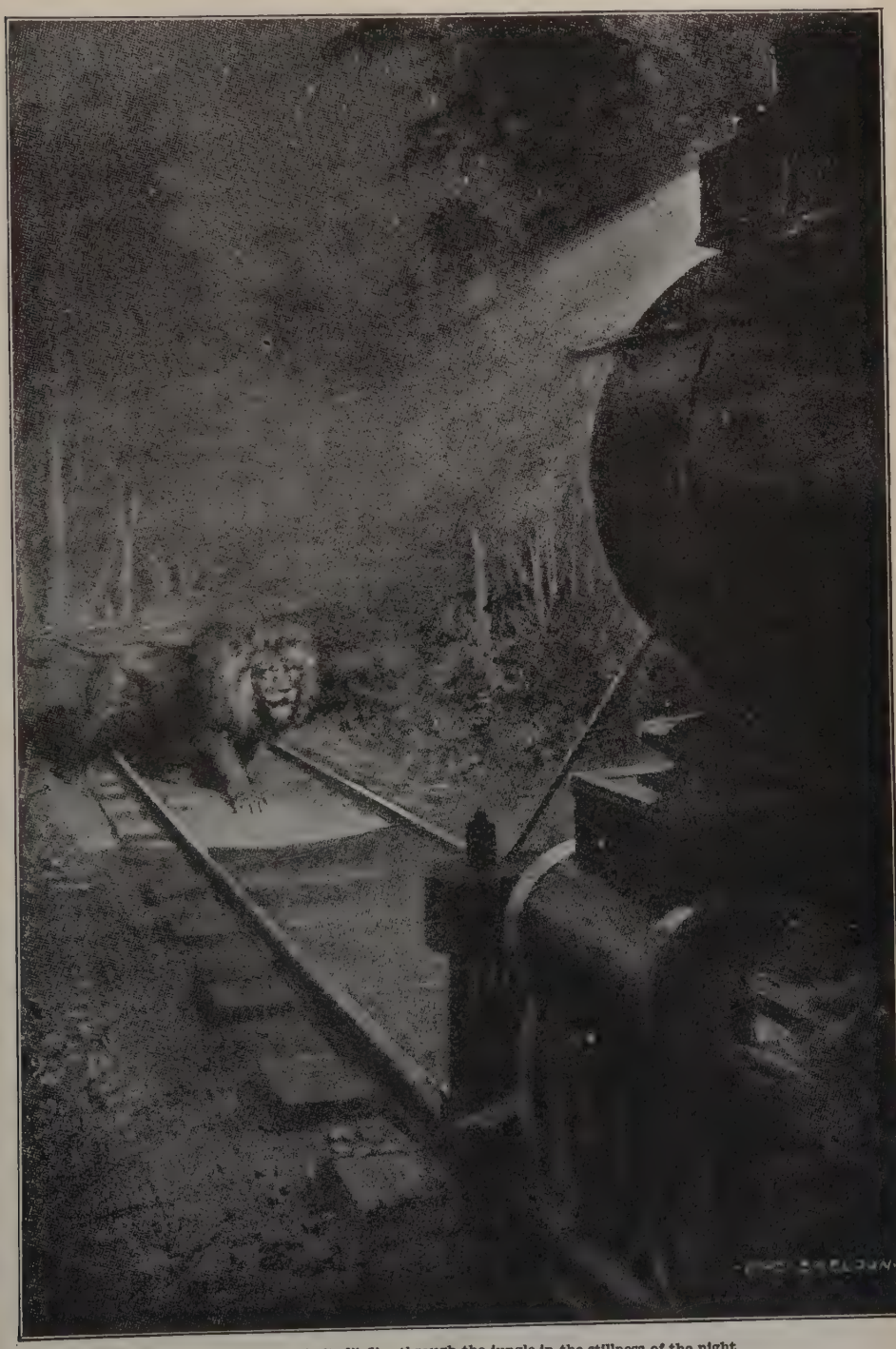
A magnificent piece of engineering threw a great bridge across this narrow chasm. First a small electric station was set up at the foot of the falls, the power from the running water supplying energy to drive the plant. Then a wire cable was hauled across the river, and suspended over the gulf. Across this, loads upon loads of material were sent over, ten tons at a time.

How a steam-engine was packed up and carried along a wire

A steam locomotive was sent across this carrier, a piece at a time. When all was ready a hundred native laborers under twenty-five engineers, were set to work, building out the bridge from the two sides of the gorge at once. It was built as regularly as clockwork, the great steel arms growing out from both sides simultaneously. The work was begun in October, 1904, and was finished in nineteen weeks, perhaps the quickest piece of bridge-building on record. As the bridge neared completion there was much excitement, for the least mistake would have been serious, but the two halves met exactly; there had not been a miscalculation of an eighth of an inch. The bridge is the highest in the world, 420 feet above the boiling water below, and is 650 feet in length.

That was not the only exciting piece of work on this part of the line. When the River Kafue came to be

KING OF THE FOREST WAITS FOR THE TRAIN



The "African Limited" flies through the jungle in the stillness of the night

crossed there was great difficulty in getting the native workmen to go down in the hollow steel piers which were sunk in the water. It seemed too terrible to them to work under a river, and when they did go down, and a little water leaked into the piers, they fled in a panic of fear. There was no electric cable for this river, but before they got their bridge built the engineers wanted a locomotive on the other side. They ferried it across entire on a gigantic pontoon.

But worse than water and its bothering ways were the wild animals. Once a great rhinoceros, annoyed at the sight of a little engine puffing about, took it into its head to charge the locomotive. The engineer, seeing the animal coming, put on steam and fled, but not soon enough to prevent the rhinoceros from catching the caboose with its mighty horn and tearing half of it into splinters.

At another place a herd of elephants used nightly to cross the line to go to their drinking place. All went well until one night something disturbed the temper of the leader of the herd, and, with a shrill scream of anger, he charged at the engine and knocked it off the line. But as it fell the engine imprisoned the elephant, holding it down by the foot, so that the lord of the herd had to be shot before the engine could be set right.

Lions, however, were the greatest source of terror. On one occasion a full-grown male, roused from his nap by the whistle of the train, dashed at the engine and tried to claw it. Failing to get a grip, it fell off, but returned to the charge again and again, each time getting out of harm's way as it fell, until at last the engineer rushed his engine at the lion and killed it.

Far worse than this, however, were the experiences of the builders of the Uganda line. The camps of the workers was besieged night after night by man-eating lions. Every night a man, perhaps two men, would be carried off. It was in vain that men sat up to keep watch; the lions were too cunning to be caught by traps, too wily to go the way by which they seemed to know they were expected. Fires were kept burning, but the lions would leap over them; great defences of thorn bushes were set up, but the lions got through or over them. Every night the camp resounded with dreadful cries as some unhappy victim was seized and carried from his bed to be eaten in the long grass. At last the natives became so terrified that they refused to go on with the work unless surrounded, day and night, with protecting iron fences. With the British Empire behind them, the builders of the railway were helpless in the presence of two man-eating lions, for there were but two of them at this point. For three weeks not a tie was laid, not a rivet was driven; the whole camp was under fear of death from the lions.

It might be generally supposed that the coming of the railway leads to the extinction of wild life in a new country. No one is allowed to kill an animal within a mile of the line, and the result is that the neighborhood of the railway has become a sort of sanctuary for them. Lions and other animals have increased greatly in numbers. They have learned now that they have nothing to fear from the railway, and they increase in peace.

Uganda is the home of sleeping sickness, which medical men are now studying on the spot. Sleeping sickness is caused in man by the bite of a tsetse fly carrying a deadly germ, and this insect can only be hatched

in water or damp places. What the railway authorities have done is to prevent anybody from living within two miles of the lake—the great Victoria Nyanza—and all around the banks of the lake, where the railway runs, they planted sweet potatoes.

THE FIGHT AGAINST AN ENEMY WHICH DESTROYS THOUSANDS OF LIVES

These kill off the swampy growths which formerly existed, dry up the soil, and make it no longer possible for the death-dealing tsetse fly to breed there. In such simple ways do men of science check a disease which has slain hundreds of thousands of people within a few years. Of course, the Uganda Railway is not on the route of the Cape to Cairo, but it is a very important feeder of the continental line, and can easily be reached from the Sudan. It is a wonderful piece of work.

The Cape to Cairo Railway is a great help in the peaceful development of Africa. But war has followed its track. The southern part of the work was interrupted by the Boer War; the northern half was begun for the purpose of war. Before 1882 Egypt had for sixty years been gradually extending her influence over the Sudan, but then for sixteen years a Dervish fanatic, called the Mahdi, and the Khalifa, who had been one of his officers, held the country in a desolating tyranny. They closed the Sudan to civilization; they massacred, made slaves, blotted out whole communities, and turned the Sudan into a wilderness. General Gordon, who had been sent out by the British government to rescue the native Egyptian garrisons and those dependent upon them, was besieged in Khartoum, and finally slain there. British forces sent to punish the offenders were cut to pieces, and affairs were dreadful until Lord Kitchener appeared upon the scene.

He had to break the power of the Dervishes. His starting point was Cairo, but the Khalifa's stronghold was 1200 miles south, across waterless deserts. All the king's horses and all the king's men could not have reached the enemy, for food and water and stores had to be carried all the way. So Lord Kitchener built a railway, and carried his army along it. He had to fight tremendous battles on the way, so that his men may be said to have worked like the builders of the Temple, with a trowel in one hand and a sword in the other. The railway began at Wady Halfa, and was laid on to Khartoum, and the line was constructed as a pathway for an army is now part of the northern link in the chain which is to join Cairo to the Cape.

Such are some of the features and history of this marvelous undertaking. There are thousands of people in Africa who have never seen a cart, whose first journey will be taken by a railway train. Hitherto African travel has been mainly on foot, sometimes in ox-wagons, rarely on horseback. Travelers have been carried in hammocks, slung over the shoulders of negroes; they have crossed rivers and lakes in boats which the hippopotamus has delighted to toss into the air; they have tramped on foot for weeks together through forests so dense that the sun cannot penetrate them.

But, although Africa is so vast that ages must elapse before railways can be general, the old order is changing, giving place to new. Where trains are, trade will spring up. There are diamonds and gold, coal and precious minerals, tin and copper and platinum, fruits, rubber, oils, nuts, fibers, ivory, hides, furs, and a thousand other things waiting to come from Africa to the markets of the world.

A NORTHERN NIGERIAN HUNTER

The native hunter all over Africa is an adept in the art of stalking game—even human game—for when armed with a weapon having but a short range, he must get near enough to his quarry to make his shot certain. His livelihood depends upon his success. In some parts of Northern Nigeria (e. g., among the Ninzam), wooden headdresses with horns like those of the antelope are worn. Here a Nupe is wearing one resembling a hornbill.

Each big chief in Northern Nigeria has a number of trumpeters in his train who sound salutes and calls upon long brass trumpets of local manufacture, resembling our coach-horns both in appearance and in the notes produced.

NATIVE AFRICAN CUSTOMS AND CEREMONIALS

OWING to the tales of its richness in gold, the Gold Coast in West Africa has been better known than other parts, and it is only lately that the newer European possessions have been opened up and described. Even now, there are many tribes in the hinterlands between the Niger, Lake Chad, and the ocean which are practically unknown.

In West Africa the term "dress" covers everything from almost absolute nakedness to the European outfits which have been adopted. Babies usually wear nothing at all for the first year or so—with certain tribes until the age of five or six—but sometimes they will have a girdle of string, or even of beads.

As the child grows up, however, it is almost certain to have something in the way of dress and ornament. Among the Head-Hunters of Northern Nigeria a girl's lips (and sometimes her nose also) will be pierced for the reception of little disks of wood, the holes being at first small, and then gradually enlarged by the insertion of stalks of grass and sticks until they are able to hold the much-prized disks —which are often ornamented with seeds, beads, or tin.

In many tribes the children are scarified, and among the Hausas by the marks on a person's face even the place to which he belongs can be determined, and his trade inferred. In some countries the girl is dressed up in all the finery which she can provide or borrow, and parades the town to notify all eligible bachelors that she is open to offers.

Marriage may not make much difference to the dress of a man, but there will almost certainly be something in the way of a trousseau for the woman. The Head-Hunters don leaves before and behind, and a tail of palm-fiber;

the Keddara have one of string; the cannibal Gannawarri wife wears a puzzle-chain of iron rings which clanks as she walks—not at all a comfortable garment, if such it may be called. Other women in the district merely bind up their loins more securely, but in certain parts an upper cloth is added to the woman's attire, and this will be useful later on, for in it will be wrapped her baby.

A man may wear something distinctive for fighting, even if it be only a kind of war-paint, and if he manages to kill an enemy he is almost certain to have something to show afterwards in the way of a war medal.

A WEST AFRICAN BRIDE

The cloth worn by the bride, the daughter of one of the most important chiefs in the Oil Rivers Protectorate, now Southern Nigeria, is of native manufacture. Some of these cloths are very beautiful and exceedingly strong. The necklets, bracelets and hair ornaments are large pipes of real and valuable coral. The armlets are of ivory cut from elephants' tusks.

A CHIEF, JUKIN TRIBE

This chief is the ruler of Wukari, a town south of the Benue district. The position of king in the old state of Kororofa, which included the Jukins, was once one of certain death, for the reigning chief was killed at the end of the second year after his accession, the slayer being appointed to rule in his stead, provided that he could pass some simple test.

COURTSHIP AND MARRIAGE

Very few natives remain single for the whole of their lives. They deride a bachelor, and say that he dreams of nothing but sweeping and cooking, having no time for anything but "woman's work." Many men are single because they cannot afford to pay for a bride—but poverty is another object of ridicule among natives. When a Head-Hunter goes to propose, he ornaments himself by painting his face and wearing a long iron chain round his neck, and takes a present of money to the father of the fair one. If his suit is accepted, he adds a hoe, a goat, a dog, and the flesh of another goat which he and the father eat. He is then supposed to be betrothed, and can claim his wife at once if she be a divorcee; but he must wait until the next wet season if she be a virgin. At the proper time a great amount of guinea-corn is collected by the youth's family,

and on the wedding-day this is taken to the house of the girl's father, where the feasting and dancing are held.

With the Hausas, the youth first asks the girl—for although Mohammedans, the women are not secluded—and if she is willing he gets his best friend to approach his father or uncle, who then sounds the girl's father or uncle. In some parts an old woman may act as an intermediary. If all are willing, a part of the dower is paid, and on the fourth day before the wedding, the bride-to-be is seized by her female relatives and bridesmaids, who stain her hands and feet with henna, the girl resisting—or pretending to do so. She is kept in the stain for four days, and is then taken to her husband's house at night. He, however, is not there; he has to live with the best man for some days—varying from two to seven. At the end of the time, the best man brings him to his house, and, having given presents to the bridesmaids still with her and thus bribed them to go away, the best man tries to make the bride speak. She will not do so, and he also retires, leaving her and her husband alone. The name of the first husband is never spoken by a Hausa wife; she calls him owner of the house or something similar, for the real name is a vulnerable point of attack if used by an evilly-disposed wife.

In Liberia the aboriginal girl must pass through a bush school much resembling that of the *Bunda* in Sierra Leone, and to a less extent the Fatting House of Southern Nigeria; and when she is ready for marriage, her prospective husband is advised. He has probably bespoken her in early youth, and so has saved up his presents in anticipation of the great day, and he now brings the bride-price (which is about equal to one cow, two slaves, and a number of kola-nuts), or perhaps only a part, the rest being paid later in installments, on proof of the satisfactory quality of the goods. The bride's family has already been propitiated by guns for the brothers, and cloths for the sisters, and household utensils or cloths for the mother. The bride is rubbed all over with a pomade made of animal fat and palm-oil, and having been decked in special ornaments supposed to possess some magic properties, she is taken to the bridegroom's house, where a feast is being held.

WOMAN OF THE GERKUA TRIBE

The baby is carried in a bag made of string or of a goat-skin, and thus burdened the mother goes out to the farm. Notice the native hoe.

Religion and Magic

Owing to the rapid spread of Mohammedanism, many old beliefs

AFRICAN JUJU IMAGES, WITH ATTENDANTS

The term Juju used in Southern Nigeria is probably derived from a local word "egugu," meaning a sacred emblem. Jujus vary in importance in different towns, but to the dominant one is always ascribed protection against witchcraft. Priests dress up to represent the Jujus at certain times, and there is great rivalry between the different towns as to which can produce the most gorgeous robes for the images and members, so the financial state of a place may be gauged by these.

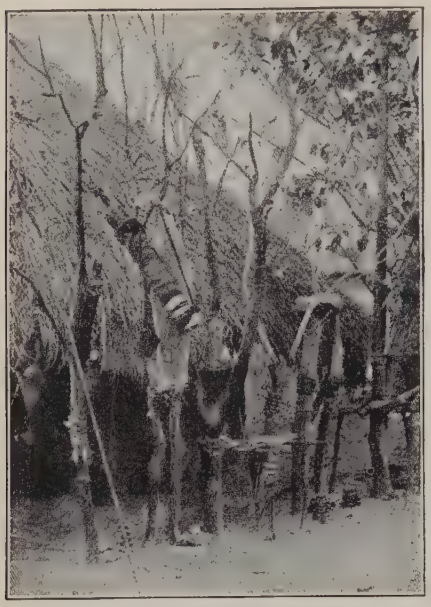
and customs are dying out, but West Africa is still immensely rich in examples of sorcery and magic, and Islam has merely substituted one kind of superstition for another. Even to the partly converted Hausa, the world is peopled with spirits, or *bori*, most of which are evilly disposed, or, at any rate, will work evil upon the slightest provocation, and care must be taken to propitiate them, or at least to avoid attracting their attention. Many of these *bori* are disease spirits, possibly introduced by Arabs, such as *Yerima* (fever) and the *Yayan Zanzanna* (who give smallpox and other complaints); many are old pagan deities, whose worship is still retained, the chief of the latter being *Magirro* and *Uwar Gwona* (corn deities), *Mai-Ja-Chikki* (a snake), and *Kuri* and his wife *Uwar Dowa*, the rulers of the forest. In Nigeria the rites—in which people imagine themselves possessed by these and other spirits—have been forbidden by the government, but they still flourish further to the north, and even along the Benue natives of other tribes have learned them.

The Head-Hunters believe in a supreme God, who seems to be confused with the universe, and regard him as a beneficent being who helps them against the ghosts of their dead ancestors, who are always causing trouble to the members of the family still upon earth.

The principal cults of the religion of the Ekoi are that of ancestors and that of nature forces. There are but two actual deities: *Obassi Osaw* (he of the sky), and *Obassi Nsi* (he of the earth); but the whole bush is now peopled with countless hordes of supernatural beings, horrible half-human shapes though indications have been found of a form of worship which links the belief of the present-day Ekoi with that of the ancient Phœnician, the Egyptian, the Roman, and the Greek.

In Dahomey serpent worship is the chief religion, the python being the emblem of bliss and prosperity. There are various sects of priests, and a child who has been touched by one of these reptiles must be initiated into a sect. The religion is almost idolatry, for clay images are made of some of the spirits, and in Wida there can or could be seen many a cone of baked clay, the apex saturated with palm-oil, palm-wine, and other offerings; the cone representing *Azoon*, the protector of houses.

The *Ikenga* are images purchased in the market, which are thrown away some days after the owner's death. Last come the *Alose*, or demigods, comprising the year, *Aro*, the week, various trees and rivers, and *Agu*, the tutelary deity of the medicine-men, a mischievous sprite who will spoil the crops and bring unlimited misfortune upon anyone upon whom he chooses to play his pranks. At the end of the year women carry old pots, clothes, baskets, etc., to the place consecrated to *Aro* and throw them away, believing that they are thus ridding themselves of pain and sickness for the coming year. Sacrifices to *Agu* are made outside the house wall. Ancestors, also, are worshiped for those who have no children become evil spirits. At Awka fowls are sacrificed to the ancestors of each sept or clan, each child taking a fowl to the head of the family, who sacrifices them, sprinkling some of the blood upon oglisi sticks which have been set up, the remainder being put into a wooden vessel and kept by the wife of the head. Yams and oil-beans are prepared also, the small boys eating the offerings. All the fowls are then put in a heap, and each man takes his own and cooks it at home, but at sunrise they are taken back to the head-man,



A MUNCHI HUNTING JUJU

Before the hunt it is necessary for the hunters to prepare themselves and their weapons, and certain ceremonies are performed so as to enlist the services of the spirits. Observe the quivers hung up on a tree in order that the arrows may be helped in their flight by the desired supernatural agencies.

A MEDICINE MAN OF MAIDUGURI

The medicine man has to wear numerous charms not only to make certain that he possesses magical power but also to advertise the fact that he depends upon them, some of which he sells at a high price. His clothes are almost concealed by the number of his amulets while a leopard skin does duty for a hat.

whose wife brings the blood, and each man dips the head of his fowl in this and again sprinkles the oglisi. The head, neck, and gizzard are given to the head-man.

Household shrines and worship

With the Edo, there is no family which has not its household shrine and household worship both of the spirits, or *ebo*, and of ancestors. Over all is the supreme *Osa*, whose emblem —a pole with a white cloth or a pot— is seen everywhere. He is the creator of the world. Sacrifices are offered to the various gods, and they are regarded as "payments for work," and the alligator pepper is used as a stimulant to ensure the speedy action of the recipient.

Bobowissi is the chief god of the southern tribes of the Gold Coast, and was, until recently, worshiped universally by the tribes on the littoral as far as Accra. He is said to have appointed all the local deities, the spirits of the woods, rivers, hills, valleys and the sea, and to be the lord of storms, who, when offended, would kill by lightning, or by breaking down with rain the mud houses of the occupants. *Tando* specially protects the Ashanti, keeping them informed of the secret machinations of their enemies. Sometimes in the old days he would assume the form of a male child, and, having caused himself to be taken prisoner by the enemies, and carried to their country, he would then devastate it with pestilence.

After the principal deities come many of less importance, the chief of which are *Srahmantin* and *Sasabonsum*. The former is a white female of enormous size, who lives in or among the silk-cotton trees, and crushes passers-by. *Sasabonsum* is a red monster who lives in the depths of the forest underground, where the earth is red,

or in silk-cotton trees. He is the most cruel and malevolent of all the gods, capturing and devouring solitary wayfarers wherever they are found—their blood accounting for the red earth. He throws the trees down to crush passers-by, and heaves up the earth so as to make the houses fall in. In the old days, human sacrifices were always made after an earthquake to propitiate him, and when houses were rebuilt blood was sometimes used to color the lower parts of the walls and the foundations.

The term "fetishism," so long connected with the Gold Coast and its hinterland, is now being discontinued; it was simply a term to describe an idea that a spirit had taken up its abode in some natural feature of the landscape, a mountain or stream, for instance, or in some object specially appointed for its reception, such as a figure, or a dish of "medicine." The beliefs, however, have not been repudiated, and the former are regarded as tribal deities, while the latter are usually the guardians of families or even of individuals.

So long as they are faithful to their followers there is no lack of attention paid to them; but if they prove unfaithful or incapable they are at once discarded in favor of better spirits, which are kindly indicated by the priests—for a fee.

The Bambaras believe in a supreme god, Allah, creator and ruler of all, one who rewards or punishes. His name is invoked when blessing a newly-married couple, or when consoling mourners or pacifying sufferers.

After Allah come the angels, and then the *Gnena* or jinns, who live, rejoice, and suffer exactly as do human beings. They are subject to Allah, and, like the Hausa *bori*, can do nothing if he sees fit to prevent them, but otherwise they are all-powerful in certain functions, and the Bambaras make supplications to them directly—for they do more good than evil—though in a confused way they also pray through them to Allah. They are supposed to be like Europeans—as is *Dodo* with the Hausas—and whereas white fowls are offered as sacrifices to the jinns, they are also given as presents to the Europeans. The *Gna* or *Boli* are very evil spirits, in open conflict with Allah, who has condemned them to the flames. They are very black and hideous, and have horns.

Wizards and witches punished

The detection and punishment of wizards and witches is often left to certain castes of medicine-men; indeed, they are the only persons who can "smell out" these evil doers. Thus the Kwi-iru of the Grebo, the secret society of "children of departed spirits," is composed of all people except children. The head or father is known only to the members, and when he appears in public is too well masked to be identified.

The avowed object of the society is the punishment of wizards and witches, so the members usually operate at night and capture any one they find walking about, and put him to the ordeal next morning.

Towards the end of August a festival is held for the general remembrance of the dead, and from early morning the people wail for those who have died during the past two years. Then each family goes to its own graves and makes offerings of fowls, eggs, rum and palm-wine, flattering the deceased, and calling upon them for protection.

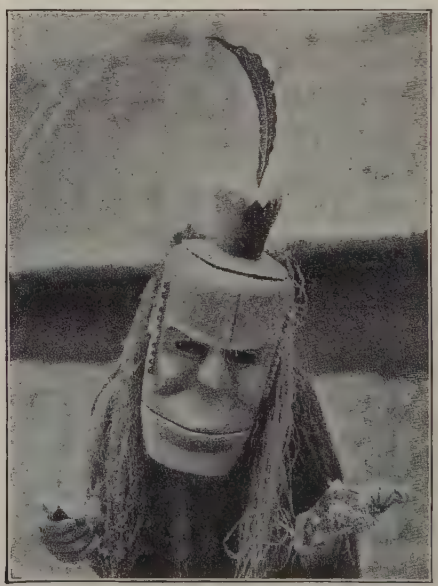
After this, there is feasting for seven days, and on the ninth morning the common utensils used during the festival are thrown away, new ones being substituted.

A PROTECTION AGAINST DISEASE

The Ekoi who live in the Oban district of Southern Nigeria, set up in towns every seven years, figures to represent human beings in order that they may attract the diseases and allow the people of the villages to escape.

OFFERINGS TO THE GHOSTS, NORTH EKONG

At the entrance to all Ekoi towns offerings are hung on either side of the pathway, or are buried in the path itself, so as to propitiate the ghosts and persuade them not to enter the town.



THE LEOPARD SECRET SOCIETY

A Leopard secret society, the members of which dress themselves in the skins of animals—principally that of the leopard—and commit depredations at night similar to those of the denizens of the bush, is found among almost every tribe in Southern Nigeria.

A PUPPET SHOW, BIDA

A man concealed under the gown manipulates puppets on his hands in the same way as a Punch and Judy showman. He also produces the real Punch squeak, and Nupe being an intoned language, the audience roar at his jokes conveyed by the modulated squeak alone.

A GOLDEN STOOL FOR THE KING

Formerly, when the King of Ashanti was placed upon the Golden Stool, a number of youths and maidens were selected to be in constant attendance upon him and to guard him from harm; the women preparing and tasting every dish previous to its being placed before him, the men forming his body-guard. All known as the "King's souls," enjoyed special privileges during his life, but at his death they were put to death and buried with him, in order both to serve him in the next world, and to show that the deceased had really been a great king. It is said that these "souls" did not try to avoid their fate, believing that they

DIFALO DANCERS

The Difalo bury their dead temporarily in a cave, removing the bodies later and burying the remains afresh, with the exception of certain bones which are piled up into a mound within a sacred enclosure. At all the rites special clothing is worn, the above picture showing the head-dresses of some of the dancers.

would enjoy a similar status in the next world to that which they had held during life. On each anniversary of the king's death, fresh attendants were despatched to join him to show that he had not been forgotten, and to give further proof of his greatness to the inhabitants of the world which he was then honoring with his presence.

Among the Yeskuwa, when a new chief has been elected, he must provide a feast of guinea-corn beer. He is usually given some three months in which to collect the supply, but even then the feast probably renders him bankrupt until such time as he has seized sufficient of the property of his subjects to repay the loans. Until the feast has been given, he is not considered as having been installed but during the interval he is taboo, for he must not see or speak to a stranger.

One of the Ibo chiefs, the King of Aguku, is the spiritual potentate over a large extent of the country, and is regarded with great awe by the populace. He is dressed in a long blue gown, and on his head is a tall cowhide cap surrounded by eagles' feathers. He rarely leaves his own town after his first year of kingship; but when he does so, he is always accompanied by a servant who carries a small bell.

If the chief meets anyone upon the road whom he wishes to salute, he takes the bell and strikes two notes upon it. In his own house, or in the town of Aguku, a large single bell is used, and when the king strikes this, all the people present clap their hands.

When he is dying a man from a certain district touches his face with a sacred object, *ofo*, which is then put away in the sleeping-mat of the departing king, and is kept there until the successor (not necessarily a relative) sends to the dead man's son for permission to remove it.

In this removal of the *ofo* lie the essential features of the coronation.

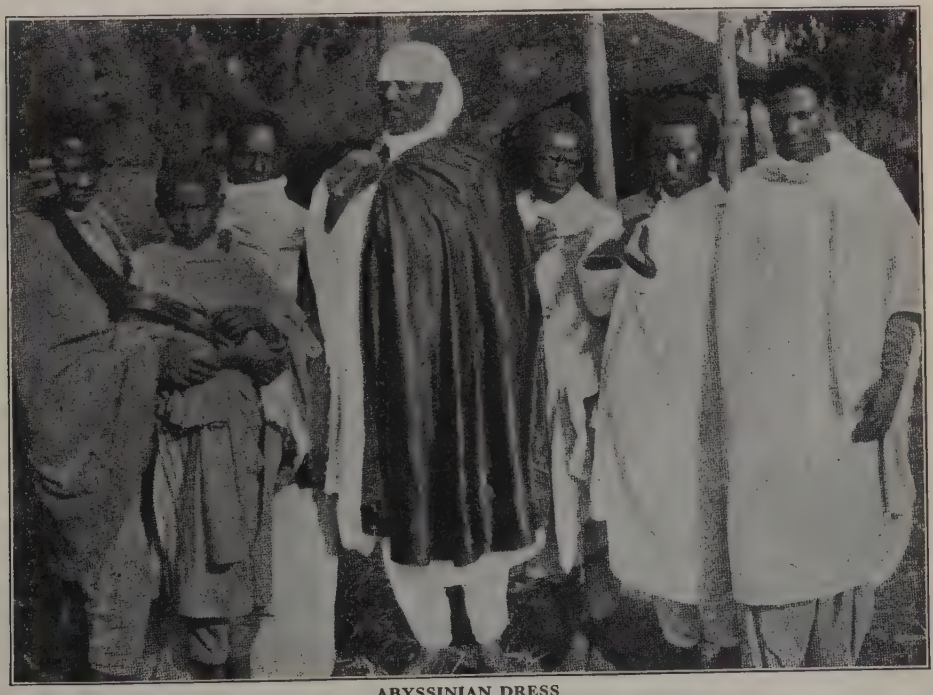
ABYSSINIA—ITS CUSTOMS AND SUPERSTITIONS

Abyssinia was an ancient kingdom of established repute in the days of Homer, who bears record to the hospitality of the "blameless Ethiop," extended to the very gods of high Olympus. Later it was the home of Prester John, whose legendary personality stamped itself so deeply on the medieval imagination. Still later it was the cradle of Christianity in the heart of Africa from the fourth century onwards. Today Abyssinia presents the somewhat melancholy spectacle of a dying culture.

The present population of Abyssinia is mixed. Egyptian, Berber, Jew, Portuguese, Indian, Arab and Negro intermingle and in the chaos of their conflicting interests and beliefs the old culture dies fast. In the state religion, Christianity, and in Abyssinian Mohammedanism, there are many traces of pagan superstitions and practices to which some of the inhabitants are wholly given up. The worship of the Virgin Mary is so widely extended and forms such a large part of the orthodox religion, that it seems exceedingly probable that it may be derived from the cult of some pagan goddess whose attributes and very existence have been forgotten in this later development of her rites. All Abyssinians, whether Christian, Mohammedan or Pagan, believe in evil spirits of various forms and shapes, endowed with different powers of malignity. Some haunt dark corners by the wayside,

AN ABYSSINIAN CHURCH

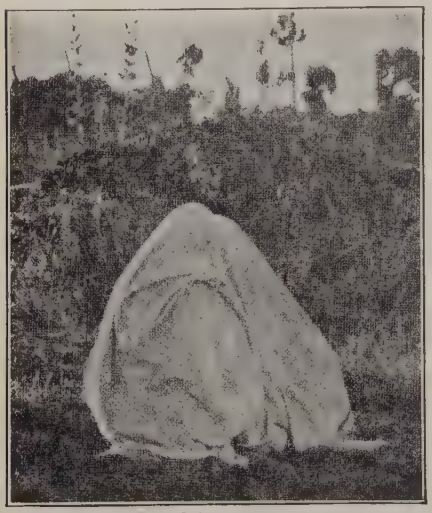
Christening in the case of either sex is, curiously enough, celebrated in Abyssinia by the initiation ceremony customary among Mohammedans. The mother goes alone with the child to the priest, who, after the fee has been paid, performs the operation outside the church but within the fence that surrounds it.



ABYSSINIAN DRESS

A long white shirt reaching down over the trousers is usually worn, and over it a shawl which is wrapped in deep folds and brought over the shoulders in a picturesque manner.

others lurk in cemeteries; some possess their victims with madness, others inflict diseases upon them; one particularly baneful, known as Lilith, seeks to destroy children in infancy. Against these supernatural agents many devices and charms are employed.



AVOIDING THE EVIL EYE

Abyssinians often cover themselves up in their garments while taking a meal by the wayside in order to avoid travelers casting "the evil eye" upon them.

The clothing habitually worn by the Abyssinians is very simple, consisting of a long white shirt, reaching down over the trousers. Over the shoulders is thrown the *shama* (shawl), which hangs in deep folds. The general effect is strikingly picturesque. The native is highly intelligent, and exercises much natural wit in driving a bargain; but he is lazy, and owes many illnesses, even blindness and leprosy, to dirt.

Inferior position of women

The women are industrious, rising early, and completing most of the housework before the appearance of their husbands; they do a certain amount of work in the fields as well. They occupy an inferior position and have few enjoyments. Their condition does not, however, deprive them of the pleasures of vanity, and they may be said to be even vainer than the Persians. To enhance their natural charms they dye their finger and toe nails red, and show their teeth to greater advantage by painting their gums black. The eyebrows are sharply defined by art and the breast, neck and back are not infrequently embellished by elaborate tattoo designs. Yet their appeal is primarily made to the sense of smell and not to that of sight. Scents are highly valued and lavishly used, so that to a European the effect produced is exactly opposite to that desired.

Girls are married at the age of fourteen and fifteen, being sold by their parents, who receive money or cattle in return.

Though the women occasionally allow themselves some license before marriage, they prove faithful wives. The marriage ceremony provides one of many welcome opportunities for feasting and drinking; and any quarrels arising from these carousals are invariably settled outside the courts of justice. In Abyssinia custom decrees that a man shall marry his brother's widow.

If a man commits murder, he is handed over to the relatives of the dead, who can either demand his execution or a compensation of money or cattle. If the dead man has no relatives, the priest has sole right to pass judgment and exact such fines as he shall think fit. Or a passer-by, on being adjured "By Menelek," may be called in and compelled to settle a dispute; no easy matter where plaintiff and defendant endeavor to surpass each other in the lies they tell.

Among the many superstitions held by the Abyssinians the following may serve as examples. To kill a hyena is to destroy your good luck, it being

SOMALI BOYS CARRYING MILK IN SKIN BAGS.

Somalis, like all good Mohammedans, always keep the person well covered—their fashions never change. The men either wear a white or colored loincloth with a half tobe covering the shoulders, or the full tobe alone. The conventional dress is the full tobe, which consists of a sheet of cotton cloth, seven or eight cubits in length, according to the fancy of the wearer, and of double width stitched together. The garment is very similar to the Roman toga.

believed that these beasts devour the dead, whose souls continue to live on in the animal's body.

Blacksmiths, it is believed, though this superstition is now dying fast, disappear at night up the chimney and are turned into hyenas. They are held to be in league with the devil, and no better-class Abyssinian would allow his daughter to marry a blacksmith.

Illness is often attributed to the effect of the evil eye, against which children are guarded by being always covered with cotton cloth. The cure for ills caused by the evil eye is as follows: the flesh and skin of a hyena are packed into a small vessel and glowing coals are placed on the top. The nose and mouth of the invalid are then fumigated with the concoction, while he howls like a hyena and says "So-and-So cast the evil eye on me."

The white eagle is believed to bring great misfortune and is always shot if possible. The bird's liver is cut out and applied by rubbing to a cow's udder. A portion is then placed in an amulet and the remainder distributed among the fodder. In this way an ample milk supply is insured. The head of the white raven hung round a beast's neck is a protection against the evil eye.

DETECTING A THIEF

A peculiar method is practiced for detecting a thief. A boy is reduced to a trance-like condition by a secretly-prepared drug, which he swallows in milk; he is then supplied with another preparation, which he sucks in a pipe; after which he is led to the place where the theft was committed, to detect the thief.

The evil eye plays an important part among the native superstitions. The Abyssinian dislikes to be watched while eating, and people may often be seen by the roadside covering their heads with a *shama* while taking their meal.

Doctors are unknown except in the European quarters, the people being treated by the priests, who provide their patients with amulets and decoctions of herbs.

The priests who profess the power of casting out devils, proceed by asking the devil the cause of the sickness, at the same time prescribing a remedy, in return for which a gift is demanded.

Many cripples and invalids go on pilgrimage to holy places like Sugala and Debra Libanos, where are hot springs to which healing powers are ascribed.

On the roof of an Abyssinian church a cross of metal may be seen, to the four points of which are often affixed the eggs of an ostrich. An old priest gave the following explanation: "The ostrich has to sit on its egg continuously, for the egg, if left, becomes rotten. This should be an example to people to attend assiduously to their religious duties, lest they too come to rot."

The religious rites have become very confused owing to Jewish and Mohammedan influence, traces of which are to be found in the laws. For instance, the Abyssinian, like the Jew, may not eat swine's flesh, nor may game be eaten unless killed by hand. Whenever they shot a gazelle or guinea-fowl its throat was promptly cut in belief that death only supervened on the performance of this act.

They also celebrate important holidays at Easter, Christmas and the New Year (in September), and shortly after the New Year, the Mascal, in commemoration of the discovery of the Cross.

DEVOTION IN THE SILENT DESERT

THE SAHARA AND ITS INHABITANTS

THE Sahara Desert occupies the enormous approximate area of 3,500,000 square miles, if all the arid regions of North and North-Central Africa, without flowing rivers or fresh-water lakes, between the valley of the Nile on the east and the Atlantic coast on the west are included within its limits. Therefore, it is equal in area to the whole of Europe, minus the extreme Arctic regions of Russia.

This region, by its recent conditions of aridity, has played a very notable part in shaping the history of Africa. It has been the means of cutting off easy access between Mediterranean Africa and the fertile regions of the Sudan and Central Africa.

A very large proportion of the Sahara Desert rises high above sea-level, reaching in some of the mountains of Tibesti to nearly 9000 feet, and on the Ahaggar plateau, where snow lies for two or three months of the winter, to elevations between 7000 and 8000 feet. The greater proportion of the desert surface consists of bare rock, or of tracts of loose stones and pebbles, most of these having a water-worn appearance as though they had been rolled about by mountain torrents. A comparatively small portion of the area of the true Sahara Desert consists actually of loose sand or sand-hills; and although, under the action of the wind, sand-hills are still, on a very small scale, created and dissolved, and thrown into huge ripples like the waves of the sea, the greater part of the dunes (rising sometimes to a height of 300 feet above the surface) are now more or less fixed in outline, and are evidently gradually settling down into a new sandstone formation.

Although sandstorms are frequent at certain times of the year in the true Sahara, it is doubtful whether incidents have really occurred within historical times of caravans being overwhelmed and actually buried under the driven sands. These incidents are chiefly attributable to the Libyan Desert, eastwards of the great Sahara.

The Libyan Desert, which stretches nearly due north to south, from the limestone hill ranges of Barka to the confines of Darfur and Nubia, is a region of shifting sands nearly 500,000 square miles in extent. This has justly been called "a dreadful wilderness." Here, indeed, is a waste of sands rising in

A DESERT CARAVAN

Here one is brought face to face with the reality of caravan travel in the Sahara Desert. Wonderful as a picture, striking in its dramatic possibilities, and full of historical suggestion, the caravan is viewed by no spectators during the weary, monotonous days that pass in the desert. The heavily laden camels, their cargoes covered with vari-colored cloths, and their drivers in white burnooses, have no thought for the spectacular side of their work.

low ridges to scarcely more than sixty feet, wherein the northwest and southeast winds raise enormous volumes of sand high into the atmosphere, sufficient to bury whole armies like that of Cambyses, which is supposed to have perished in this region in attempting to reach the Sudan.

THE SCOURGE OF THE DESERT

As the frontispiece shows, the simoon, as described by writers, must have presented a majestic and awe-inspiring spectacle. Its advent was usually signaled by the appearance of a rapidly spreading haze extending from the horizon till the whole sky was obscured by it. Then a hurricane, blowing from the south or east, drove columns of heated sand before it. There was no escape from its red scourge. Even at a distance from the actual storm "the eyes become red, swelled, and inflamed, the lips and skin burnt and chapped, while severe pain in the chest is generally felt in consequence of the quantities of sand unavoidably inhaled."

The Sahara Desert again and again presents the vivid contrast of Hell and Paradise. Dotted over the blazing desert (wherein the fierce heat of the day is, throughout the winter half of the year, balanced by the freezing cold of night) are numerous, large and small, more or less historic oases, regions in which springs bubble up out of the sand or the rock, or wherein wells, sunk to a short distance, tap a never failing supply of water. Some of the springs may be hot and fresh, others cold and salt; but even these last, where they form brackish lakes and pools, to some extent nourish bird life and wild beasts, or assist vegetation by the moisture which is distilled from them through evaporation. Even if the surface water is salt or brackish, it is usually associated with underground supplies of water that are fresh enough to nourish an abundant vegetation.

ANIMALS AND BIRDS

The animals of the Sahara still include (though they are steadily becoming less owing to the attacks of sportsmen) one species of hartebeest —the Bubal, or the wild red cow of the Arabs; the Addax antelope, with its spiral horns; the Leucoryx, with

THE ADDAX ANTELOPE

Though becoming steadily less owing to the attacks of native and European sportsmen, the Addax antelopes, with their spiral horns, are still included among the fauna of the Sahara.

The wild sheep of the Sahara

very long horns curved like a slender scimitar; two or three species of the smaller types of gazelle, and the handsome long-legged, long-tailed, long-necked Mhor gazelle, boldly colored in reddish-brown and white, and figuring a good deal in the drawings of prehistoric man. There is the great desert sheep—the Udad of Algeria, Morocco, Western Egypt, and Tibesti. There are several species of desert mice and rats, and one or two large rodents allied to the porcupine group. There are the striped hyena and the North African jackal; the cheetah or hunting-leopard; the Caracal lynx. The lion, apparently, is now only found in the Air and Asben mountains in the southern Sahara, and it may also linger in the mountain country of Tibesti and far to the west of Adrar.

As regards birds, there are huge vultures of several species, and one or two desert eagles; there are (in the south) black and white ravens; there is, of course, the ostrich. There are sand-grouse and turtle-doves, bustards and cream-colored coursers. The scrubby hill regions on the verge of the Sudan contain flocks of guinea-fowl and crowned cranes. The birds most commonly seen in the desert regions are black and white chats, gray and fawn larks, and buntings. One of these is an exceedingly pretty little bird, which is apparently peculiar in its range to the northern Sahara between Tripoli and Morocco. This is most abundant in the far south of Tunis, and is called by the Arabs, Bu Habibi, "the father of my friend." It is even tamer than the robin, and especially delights in frequenting human habitations.

Its coloration is a blue-gray head and breast contrasted with the bright chestnut of the rest of the body and wings.

Types of Races

The human races of the Sahara and Libyan deserts at the present day consist of three main types; the Tuaregs, the Tibbus, and the Negroes. The Tuaregs are from every point of view the aristocrats of the desert.

A TUAREG MAN

These strange masked men lie in wait for caravans and are indeed the pirates of the desert sands.

They represent a Berber population which, about 2000 years ago, began to penetrate and conquer the Sahara Desert between Mauretania on the north and Nigeria on the south. The very tribe that once gave Africa its

name (Avriga, Afrika) and dwelt on the east coast of Tunis, migrated in the course of centuries to the very heart of the Sahara, the Ahaggar region, where their descendants are still known by the clan name of Aurigha. The Tuaregs when of pure blood are a very handsome people, tall, shapely, and resembling the best types of Southern Europe. They are, in fact, closely allied to the Berbers of Algeria. The Tibbus, on the other hand, though they vary much in type, and some of them are like Somalis in appearance, have a great deal more negro blood in their veins, and are very dark in complexion. The Negroes, inhabiting the oases and countries like Air and Damerghu, are either of the Songhai or Hausa stock. In the far west—the Atlantic regions of the Sahara—there is a good deal of Arab intermixture, which, together with negro blood, has created a black type of Senegalese Moor, speaking a much corrupted form of Arabic.

Desert cave dwellings

In the Tunisian and Tripolitan parts of the Sahara, more especially in the region of limestone formations, there are the celebrated cave dwellers whose habitations were first described by Greek geographers before the Christian era. In Southern Tunis the cave dwellings are of very great interest, as they range in style from the almost untouched cavern, as used for the habitation of prehistoric man, to the elaborate, elegantly-shaped, and furnished dwellings carved out of the heart of the limestone rock.

We have first of all the rock shelter. This is too open in its natural condition, so its sides are built up with stones and sticks to make it less drafty and more defensible. Then, as its accommodation proves insufficient, its inhabitants have taken to cutting into the soft rock and excavating it in course of time to a more commodious dwelling. Then it has occurred to them, at a later state, to create these dwellings without any natural beginning. First they would take advantage of some great smooth wall or cliff of limestone rock and cut a tunnel into it, and from this tunnel they would gradually enlarge and excavate a whole series of apartments.

In course of centuries they became so adroit and found the limestone so easily carved and yet becoming so indurated when exposed to the air, that they not only planned the excavation of fairly large and high apartments, but as they cut them away they designed and left portions of the rock, which they carved into beds, tables, brackets, and stools, so that nowadays, if this style of house is adopted and planned, the architect-excavator carves the apartment with all its furniture, which, of course, is literally a fixture.

But another style of underground dwelling that, on the whole, is the most popular and commodious at the present day in the Tunisian Sahara, was not made by carving at right angles into a vertical surface, but downwards into a horizontal surface. The people chose some extensive region of flat limestone rock, and first of all excavated a very large square space.

Wonderful underground dwellings

Starting at a distance of a hundred yards or so, they excavated diagonally a large tunnel which should lead along a gentle incline from the surface of the ground into the bottom of this deep excavation. These tunnels have to be high enough for camels to pass down them. From the bottom of the first square excavation, which serves as a kind of hall or courtyard, they carved out a number of apartments all round. These derive their air and

light from the central, square courtyard.

The charm of these underground dwellings is that they maintain an equable temperature all the year round. In the summer they are cool, in the winter they are warm—so warm that though it may be freezing hard on the ground above, they need no artificial heat to be comfortable down below. Being in the Sahara Desert, they are always dry, though perhaps once in a while there comes a rare downpour of rain which for a time covers the floor of the central courtyard with water; but this is generally drained off by one or more shafts excavated downwards into the rock.

These strange, rock-hewn, north Saharan cave dwellings seem to be as healthy as they are comfortable. In some of them there is actual elegance in the appointments. On the marble-like floor are disposed handsome rugs and mats, and screens of beautiful tracery are made of pierced walls of rock which separate the private apartments from the central courtyard.

Deserts the result of changing climate

The present deserts of the earth have not always been arid but once were moist and they may again become places where life abounds. For, as we have seen, the quantity of vapor in the air changes gradually through long periods of time, and it may change again and again.

Deserts are terrible places, though they have their own solemn beauty and impressiveness. We cannot realize what the lack of water really means until we have visited a desert and witnessed its barren, lifeless wastes.

One of the great desert belts of the world includes central Asia, Arabia and the Sahara. The chief reason for this long and almost continuous stretch of desert is that drying winds from the northeast blow across this region taking up the moisture instead of permitting its precipitation. In our own country there are arid areas, especially in the southwestern portions.

New Mexico, Arizona, Southern California, Nevada, Utah and their surroundings are more or less arid, chiefly because the moisture laden winds from the Pacific have most of the vapor taken from them as they pass over the mountains, and there is little left for the lands to the east of the ranges.

A TYPICAL OASIS

Peculiarities of animal and plant life in the desert

It is a very interesting fact that those plants and animals which still manage to live in the desert, have gradually changed themselves to meet the hard conditions, which surround them and to live without much water or so to retain the little water they do find, that it will last until another

shower comes. Some plants like the cactus have thick, pulpy stems, which are well adapted to hold moisture, or the plants may have a thick rind or bark, which prevents the escape of moisture. Other plants develop enormously long roots, which penetrate far down to more permanent supplies of water. In the same way animals have all sorts of contrivances to get on with a minimum supply of water, or to withstand the heat and dust of the desert; the camel is a striking example of this statement. The desert also has its influence upon man himself and modifies him to some extent and has a marked effect upon his habits of life and his customs.

Grazing is a common form of occupation, the people are ever on the move following the flocks from one grazing ground to another.

Nomads of this type are frequently marauders and gain their living in part by attacking caravans or looting peoples on the edge of the desert.

The desert is a dreary, monotonous place, life there has a great sameness, there is little physical work to be done, little cooking is required and there is little to engage the attention of men. Under these circumstances men think much on some of the deeper problems of life. Two of the great religions of the earth were developed in deserts. The art of the desert is influenced by the surroundings and this is also true of the literature. Deserts are great barriers and people, who live there are apt to be isolated, they are shut off from the rest of the world.

They are therefore backward in the development of culture, they have primitive tools and weapons. Old customs, ancient styles of dress, prevail century after century, long after they have disappeared from more favored regions.

There are many evidences that in some regions there has been gradual drying-up going on for a long period. In Arizona there is a famous petrified forest, which once was a living forest. When it was growing, there must have been a good supply of water, though now there is little there and forests could not now possibly grow in that particular region. There are many of these petrified tree trunks lying scattered over the ground, at times, in great abundance. They testify eloquently to the great change that has taken place in the climate of the region, since they were living so many thousands of years ago. In other regions of the globe there are evidences that even in historic times there have been marked changes in climatic conditions, especially toward aridity.

For instance in central Asia there are districts where the area of land available for pasturage or for cultivation has been much reduced in the last two thousand years. Palestine is much less fruitful than it was in the time of Christ. Alexander the Great crossed Persia with a large army, where now it is very difficult to cross with a small camel caravan, without suffering for lack of water. Great Salt Lake in Utah was in recent geologic times many times larger than it now is. It was a fresh water lake and discharged northward into the Snake river. The growing aridity of the climate has reduced the lake to its present dimensions and has changed the nature of the water itself. The salt lakes of central Asia were once much more extensive than they now are as is shown by their old shore lines and beaches.

Thus the Caspian sea was at one time six hundred feet higher than it is at present and that in comparatively recent time. In Syria and Arabia

THE MIRAGE

Fantastic pictures are formed out of the most dreary, objectless vistas of sand or rock. The representations of lakes, bordered with bluish blobs which look like palm-groves or masses of umbrageous trees, are so real as to deceive the very elect. Apparently, also, animals are deceived by the alluring suggestion of distant water.

the ruins of large towns and cities are found where at present there is no adequate water supply. These facts testify to a marked alteration in climate.

When the climate changes in the way illustrated above, and it gradually becomes more arid it causes not only the destruction of forests but it brings great hardship upon animals and upon man himself. Where once there were fields of grain, fruit orchards, abundant pastures, destruction slowly enters, the fields dry up, the trees die and man is forced to migrate to more favorable regions.

It may well be that the great irruptions by hordes of barbarians from Central Asia into Europe and down into India may have been the result of growing aridity in their ancestral homes, making it impossible to secure their living there.

About one-fifth of the land area of the globe may be regarded as desert at the present time. This is a larger area than existed a few thousand years ago, but not larger or even as large as has existed in the geological past.

Dreary and desolate as the desert is it is yet a place of great beauty; the rocks are usually highly colored, browns, reds and yellows. Sunrise and sunset colors are gorgeous often, and there is over all that yellowish desert haze, that softens and shades the otherwise glaring colors into attractive tones and effects.

No contrast on earth is more striking than that between a great forest and a desert. One is a place of life, a source of life. The leaves, fruits and seeds of the forest offer food to animal life and indeed make it possible. The trees of the forest

help to purify the air by withdrawing the carbon dioxide from it and restoring the life giving oxygen to it. The forest helps to change the soil and on the whole helps to enrich it. In all of these ways the forest is preparing the way for more life.

THE MIRAGE — HADES AND PARADISE CONJOINED

Among the natural phenomena connected with the Sahara, (and other deserts) which has seized on the popular imagination, is that of the mirage. The sand abnormally heated by the fierce sunshine, sets up a current of heated air which expands and has its refractive index altered in such a way as causes it immediately above the sand or rocks to become a mirror. Distant objects seen through this air are enlarged and doubled and the reflection of the sky on this surface of sun-baked ground appears like a lake. It is possible even that objects below the horizon are refracted upwards and made visible so that fantastic pictures are formed out of the most dreary, objectless vista of sand or rock. The representations of lakes bordered with bluish blobs which look like palm groves or masses of umbrageous trees are so real as to deceive the very elect. Apparently also the mirage is visible to the sight of horses, oxen and camels, who are allured by the deceptive suggestion of distant water. The only feature about the mirage which is suspicious is the very indeterminate edge of the water in the middle distance. You never see a well defined shoreline on the nearer side of the supposed lake. But as this appearance occurs along the shores of real sheets of water in the desert and is due to the glare of the sun on the wet sand or mud, it seldom disturbs the illusion of the mirage.

THE SPHINX

EGYPT'S WONDERFUL STORY

WE gladly make our way to the country shaped like a lotus lily with a long stalk, lying on the bosom of the hot and sandy mid-world desert. For when we glance at the country as it is today, and at its history during the last 2000 years, we are reminded at every turn that a great and wonderful past lies behind those years. We cannot help seeing the stupendous work which that past has left scattered over the face of Egypt, so vast are the buildings and ruins still standing on the banks of the Nile and on the edge of the desert.

And so it is that, deeply interesting as we find the land today, we cannot help feeling that the true glory and greatness of Egypt lie in distant times.

It is not easy to realize that the time of subjection to the Romans, about 2000 years ago, which brought the westernmost portions of Europe into the light of day, came to the dwellers by the Nile at the close of a grand and eventful independent history, reaching back probably 5000 years and more before the Christian Era.

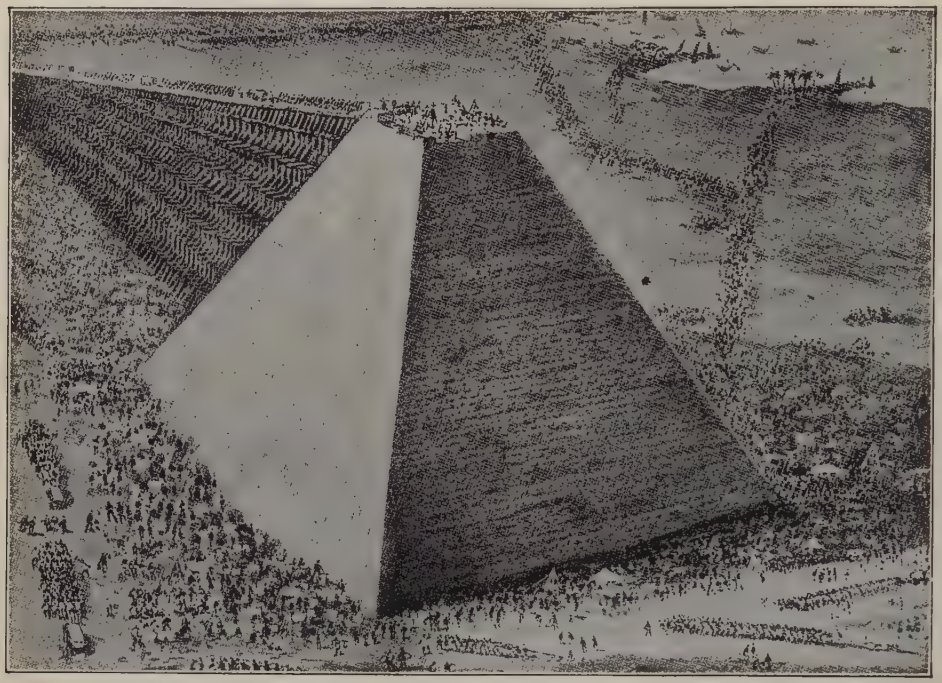
It is hard to appreciate when standing in front of the step pyramid at Sakkarah that seventy centuries have elapsed since this pile was erected—that its age is three and a half times that of the Christian Era.

The pyramids will help us; they rouse our curiosity as we look at modern Egypt and consider the fine crops, and wonder at the Suez Canal and the great dams of the Nile. So let us now without delay mount to the top of the Great Pyramid, as the largest of the three pyramids near Cairo is called.

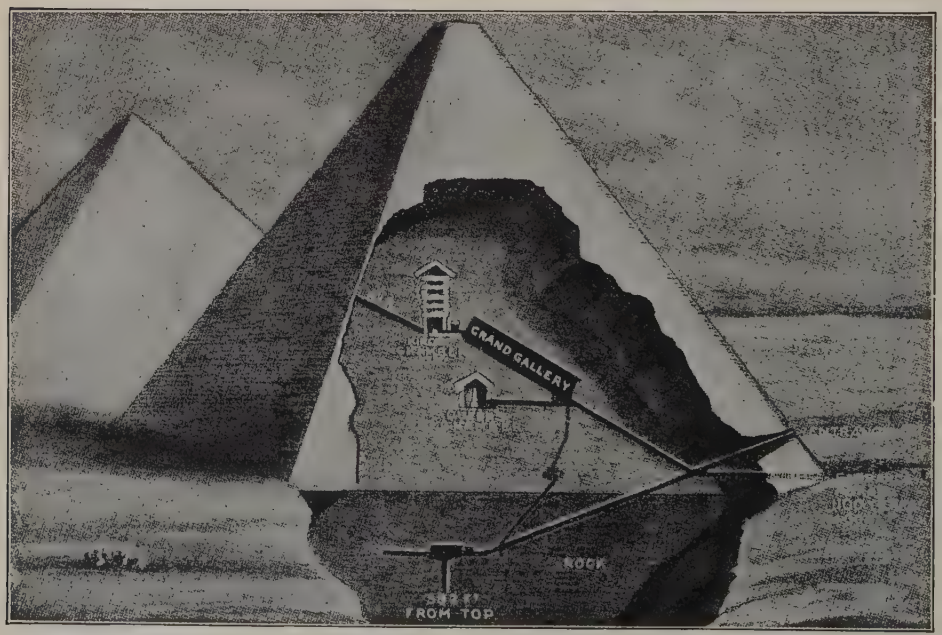
We shall not find it an easy climb, for it is nearly as high as the Washing-

THE HOUR OF PRAYER

The camel-driver is performing the obligatory prostrations of the prayer-code of Islâm at the Pyramids of Gizeh, near Cairo; the Great Pyramid being the farthest to the right, though it looks the smallest on account of its greater distance.



THE BUILDING OF THE GREAT PYRAMID BY MEN MASSED TOGETHER LIKE ANTS



THE INTERIOR OF THE GREAT PYRAMID SHOWING THE WAY TO THE KING'S CHAMBER

ton Monument, and the rough blocks of stone, which we have to use as steps, are many feet high. But two strong Bedouins in flowing white garments will push and pull us all the way up, chattering broken French and English, till we arrive breathless at the top. The outer coating of the pyramids has during the past centuries been torn away to such an extent that it may practically be said that modern Cairo has been built from the pyramids. There is an area some twenty feet in diameter at the top where one may rest and look about the country. There below us is the full, flowing river, which, except in the bad famine seasons that have come from time to time through the long history, has risen yearly from its bed and fertilized those green and yellow fields with its water and mud. During all those years, perhaps 6000 and more, the glorious sun, day by day for over 2,000,000 times, has risen from out the tender-glowing colors of the dawn beyond the eastern desert, has traveled in glory across the busy, fertile Nile valley to its evening setting in a blaze of gold and crimson behind the grim, silent hills of the western desert.

A near view of the sloping gallery of the Great Pyramid leading to the chamber where a Pharaoh was buried.

No wonder that the sun, the giver of life, held ever chief place among the gods of the old Egyptians. And each night after its disappearance, the deep purple sky, ablaze with dazzling stars in the clear air, has ever covered, as with a curtain, multitudes of tired workers, and countless generations of them, not only those whose daily labor was in the fields, or keeping the embankments in order, or raising the water where needed, all through the long centuries, but builders and workmen of all descriptions without number.

THE MIGHTY ARMY OF MEN WHO SET UP EGYPT'S SPLENDID BUILDINGS

Grand and immense buildings, such as those we see by the banks of the Nile, exist only as the result of the movement of material — hard and laborious work indeed— by thousands of human beings.

As we come down the pyramid, a task more difficult for some of us than mounting, let us try to realize that the great mass is solid, except for the passages and the funeral chambers to which they lead. The intense darkness inside the pyramid is awe inspiring. It is a somewhat arduous task to climb the incline leading to the King's Chamber and the plainness of the vault itself is rather unrewarding for the effort made.

The base of the Great Pyramid covers nearly thirteen acres. What a scene must have been the building of such a base and such a height, so many centuries ago. In these days of wonderful achievement it is hard for us to conceive of the method by which the pyramids were constructed. We know that all the stone used was transported from the hills back of Cairo across the Nile, but how the

separate stones were elevated to their final position will probably always remain a mystery.

But the huge granite facing-stones of the pyramid had to be quarried near the great dam at Assuan, and brought down the river for several hundreds of miles, and then, with enormous toil, men had to drag, push, and roll them over the burning sands.

THE HUNDRED THOUSAND SLAVES WHO BUILT A KING'S TOMB AS HIGH AS A HILL

The rest of the masses of material were equally difficult to obtain. And let us think of the stupendous work of getting it all into place by means of pulleys and rollers and the most exact human skill in masonry ever known. It is said that 100,000 slaves took part in this huge piece of work.

We may well wonder what was the object of building the pyramids at such immense cost and labor. As far as we know it was solely for the honor and glory of the reigning king, and to provide a secure resting-place for his body after death. For one of the chief points in the religion of the old Egyptians—that wonderful religion which changed so little during its long history—was to arrange, so far as means would allow, for preserving the body, as long as possible, whole and entire.

This they did by making mummies of the bodies, by soaking them in a strong kind of soda, and bandaging them very carefully, and then putting them in decorated coffins, which were hidden away in great stone vaults in rock tombs, and in the pyramids, where it was hoped that no one would ever be able to find or disturb them.

PHARAOHS WHOSE FACES WE MAY LOOK UPON IN CAIRO TODAY

Alas, for the last 3000 years at least, from time to time robbers have broken into the tombs, and disturbed what they found; and in our own days we can see, under glass cases in museums, specimens of the mummies of the great ones of Egypt brought once more into the light of day, after having lain in the dark silence for long centuries.

Perhaps we are wondering why the robbers of old were so anxious to break into the tombs, for they could scarcely care for the mummies themselves. It was the treasure that was buried with the mummies that attracted them; for the Egyptians believed that, in some mysterious way, in the new life to which he had gone, the departed person would need the things he had owned in his earthly life. So with the mummies of royal and rich persons were put their valuable ornaments and their possessions, besides furniture, clothes, and food for the use of the spirit of the departed, and the quaint little figures that were supposed to do the work that would be required in the fields of the land of peace.

It is the sight of these personal belongings that brings us into such close touch with the Egypt of 3000 or 4000 years ago. For we have in our museums cases full of such treasures as dolls with clay beads for hair, and the toys and little worn shoes and sandals of the children; the dressing-cabinet of the fine lady, containing ointments for the eyes—Egypt is still a trying place for the eyes—also elbow-cushions and dainty, pink kid slippers. We have, too, the palette and paints of the scribe, the musical instruments of the musician—in short, hundreds of articles of every-day use that bring us face to face with the people to whom they belonged centuries ago.

And besides these interesting personal belongings and thousands of little figures, with nets and field implements painted on them, there were always put beside the mummy representations of the numberless gods to

whom the Egyptians prayed, and to whom they erected wonderful temples, whose ruins still form one of the sights of Egypt.

THE STRANGE PICTURES AND SPLENDID TEMPLES OF ANCIENT EGYPT

There is a great group of these temples on the Nile, where the magnificent city of Thebes once stood, far on the way to Assuan. The great halls, imposing gateways, and rows of pillars form a beautiful sight in brilliant sunshine and deep purple shadow, and, as we gaze at them, we fancy them once more in their first beauty, with long processions of chanting priests and priestesses, and gorgeous display of kingly magnificence when the king came to pay his worship, amid the stately monuments of gold and silver, adorned with ivory and precious stones. And even yet we have not come to the end of our close touch with the past in Egypt, for we can now read the actual message across the years, written in the old Egyptian picture language, which had died out and been completely forgotten after the Roman times in Egypt.

If we look at the walls and columns of the temples, at the solid vaults, at the coffin-cases, at the sculptures and the wall-paintings, we shall find most of them covered with this picture writing. Until a century ago no one could guess what it all meant. Then an engraved stone was found at Rosetta, near Alexandria, now carefully preserved under glass at the British Museum, which has served as a sort of key to unlock the mystery.

HOW MEN SOLVED THE RIDDLE OF THE ANCIENT WRITINGS

On this stone is a certain decree about keeping a king's birthday, and the same decree is given in three different kinds of writing. The lowest is

This is one of the brilliantly decorated columns in the temple at Dendera. There are twenty-four such columns forming the portico. The temple was finished about 1900 years B. C.

THE WAY INTO THE GREAT PYRAMID
The inner sepulchral chambers are approached by long sloping passages.

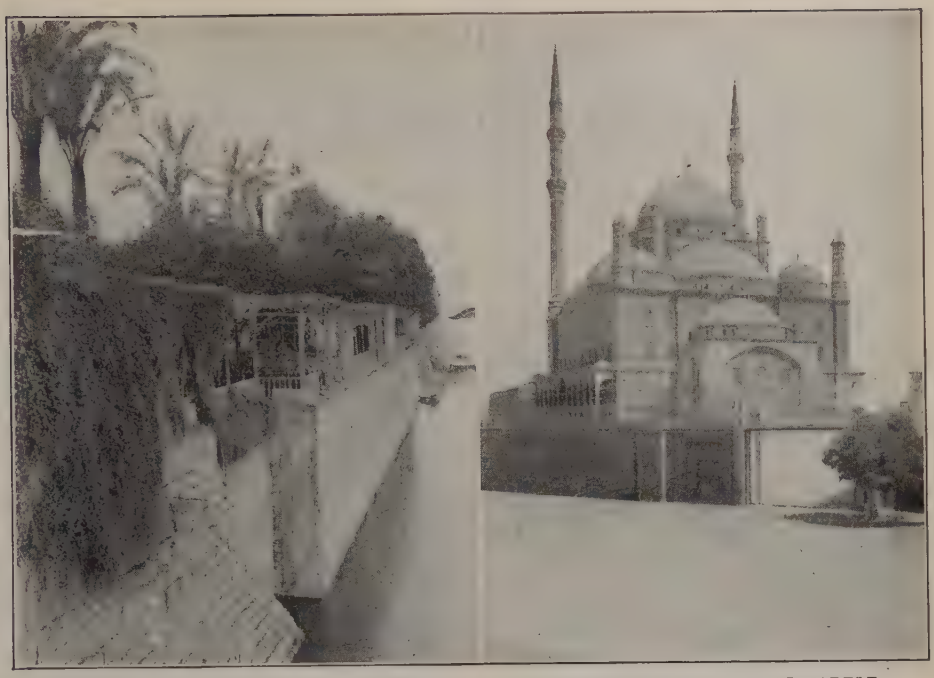
INSIDE SEVEN MILLION TONS OF MASONRY
The intense darkness inside the pyramid is awe inspiring.

in Greek, which scholars know well; the top is in the Egyptian picture writing used on the monuments and the middle one is also in the Egyptian language, but in a more running kind of writing used for everyday purposes by the people.

Learned men, who love finding out the puzzles of the past, set to work translating this decree, and comparing it with certain lists of kings' names they had already studied, till at last it was all straightened out, and the values of the signs discovered, so that we can now stand by and listen to those who know hieroglyphs, as they translate the old Egyptian writings as easily as if they were in English print.

And this discovery and study have also opened up to us the old books and chapters of books constantly found in the tombs. These were in long rolls, or *papyri*, so called from the material on which they are written. This is the inner part of the papyrus reed, that grows in such profusion on the Nile banks, and from which we get our word "paper."

The work of the scribes was to make copies of these papyri. The one most copied is called the Book of the Dead, parts of which are believed to be older than the pyramids themselves. Certain chapters of this book were always laid beside the mummies, to instruct them what to say and how to behave in the underworld. There is no end to the interest of the Book of the Dead, not only on account of its entrancing illustrations, but also for the teaching it gives about the religion of Egypt, and how men tried to fit themselves in life for a happy hereafter; and how they expected to be judged, and how they believed they



MEASURING THE HEIGHT OF WATER

Nileometer: This marked gauge approached by a flight of steps has for centuries been used in the daily watch of the Nile's height, so essential to the life of Egypt.

MOSQUE BUILT OF ONYX MARBLE

This famous Alabaster Mosque copied from St. Sophia's of Constantinople, is situated inside the citadel on the summit of the hill and is a landmark for miles around.

would live and work on their way through the underworld.

Besides this and other religious books, there are many other papyri of great age, and they include fairy-tales, war poems, medical and astronomical books, and also lengthy instructions as to behavior.

Every year diggings and explorations are being carried on in the search for more temples and tombs, inscriptions and papyri, to fill in the gaps in our knowledge of the story of old Egypt.

ONE OF THE GREATEST MUSEUMS IN THE WORLD

The Egyptian Museum founded by Mariette at Cairo contains one of the most wonderful exhibits covering ancient life in the world. It is approached in interest only by the Museum of Naples which contains the relics recovered at Pompeii. For example a few years ago one of the small pyramids was opened and in it were found the remains of an Egyptian Princess who lived some 5000 years ago. Among her possessions was a rubber-tired chariot, wooden wheels and solid rubber tires some two inches thick. In just what way the native gum was treated we do not know but the results were similar to those gained in our solid rubber tire of today. Food placed in these tombs has been recovered; and in one tomb jars of honey still palatable were found. Resting in a glass case lies the mummy of Pharaoh the persecutor of Moses. Little did he believe when he died three or four thousand years ago that he would be resting in a glass case to be gazed upon by the multitude. He is a man of stern appearance with a great deal of character and personality

written in the lines of his face. Just how many more tombs lie undiscovered beneath the sands no one knows but new ones are being continually brought to light, those which evaded the robbers of medieval times.

An Egyptian King who Reigned Nearly Seven Thousand Years Ago

Scholars are inclined to put back the beginning of that story farther and farther. The first historical king of all Egypt is put by some in the forty-fifth century before Christ. Some think that Menes, who turned the course of the Nile, lived much earlier. Before him there are legends of god-kings and heroes, and kings of small states. Specimens of very old pottery, with pictures upon it of soldiers and boats, strangely like children's drawings of today, give an idea of the first known life on the Nile long before Menes.

For the sake of convenience, in dealing with the great number of kings who followed Menes, we generally group them into thirty or more dynasties, or families, and the names are gleaned from the various lists of kings on tablets and papyrus, made from time to time through the centuries, which have come down to us. When looking at inscriptions we can always distinguish royal names, because they are surrounded by an oval line, supposed to be a cord tied in a knot to preserve the name from contact with common ones. This oval is called a *cartouche*. Before the king's name will generally be found some Egyptian words composed of a sign like an umbrella and an insect over two half-circles. These signs mean King of the North and South, for Egypt is such a long, narrow country that it was long divided into two parts, and so we often hear of the Double Crown, which is made up of the red crown of North Egypt, and the white crown of South Egypt.

The Kings of Egypt who Called the Sun their Father

Each king also called himself Son of Ra, or the Sun, which is shown by a goose and the round sun with a dot in the middle. The names of the kings are chiefly made up from about a dozen signs, which we meet with continually in every inscription.

Very little is known of the kings of the first three dynasties. It was under the rule of the fourth, perhaps—some say in the thirty-seventh century before Christ, others 1000 years earlier still—that the three great pyramids near Cairo are believed to have been built by Chu-fu, by Cha-f-Ra, and by Men-kau-Ra.

The Merciful King, whose Body was Lost at Sea

The mummy of the Men-kau-Ra and his sarcophagus were put on board ship to be transported to England but near Spain the ship encountered a severe storm and sank; and this priceless treasure was lost to the world. It is said that the sixty-fourth chapter of the Book of the Dead was compiled in his reign.

Not far from these Pyramids of Gizeh is an enormous monster, hewn out of the living rock, with a human head and the body of an animal.

The Sphinx has always been a mystery as it has never been discovered when it was built or for what purpose although a small temple has been found between the paws. It was evidently in existence long before the pyramids were built and is carved out of the native rock. It is almost covered up by the sand which seems to fill in about it as rapidly as it can be excavated.

How Abraham Entered into the Busy Life of the Nile Valley

Many interesting tombs belong to this period of, perhaps 2400 before Christ. One of them has wall-paintings, representing the arrival in the

country of a family, such as that of Abraham, the great founder of the Jewish race. The story of his visit to Egypt in search of food, when there was a famine in his own country beyond the Isthmus of Suez, is familiar to us in the pages of the Bible. What a change it must have been to the patriarch, for many years used to a wandering tent life and the silence of wide spaces, to enter into the busy life of the Nile valley, with its great cities and huge buildings, and to see the luxury and splendor of the king's court! It must have carried him back to his boyhood, to his native land, where there were also great cities and much wealth, a country as old as Egypt itself.

We can well imagine that Abraham would tell stories of this visit to Egypt to his son Isaac, that he in turn would tell them to his son Jacob, and Jacob to his sons, and, among them, to his favorite, Joseph. Let us follow Joseph on his sad journey over the "Bridge of Nations" to slavery in Egypt, fitting in all we can to make real the daily life of the handsome lad, so cruelly torn from his home.

JOSEPH AND HIS BRETHREN AND PHARAOH, WHO WOULD NOT LET HIS PEOPLE GO

Fashions changed so little in Egypt for centuries that we can well borrow those seats and other furniture and paintings in the cases around, to put in the palace of the king to whom Joseph became as a son, and we may fancy them together discussing earnestly affairs of State—the king on his throne, in a black wig of little curls and plaits, like the one found in a reed box; and Joseph, with his reed pens and paints, reading his report from a papyrus roll. Later on comes the touching welcome to the old father and all the family, who had come across the isthmus, with all their worldly possessions, to settle in the land where Joseph had become such a great man.

Little is known of the history of Egypt at this time, for the kings who ruled them—believed to be a race of foreigners—destroyed monuments rather than set them up. But when these Hyksos, or Shepherd Kings, passed away, many famous names of builders and soldiers rose up during the years that Israel lived in the "House of Bondage." Among them was Thothmes III, who inscribed and set up the great obelisk which we call Cleopatra's Needle—though the famous queen lived several centuries later.

This pillar now stands on the Thames Embankment in London. Thothmes III was one of the first kings of Egypt to make war across the isthmus, both on the nations in the mountains of Syria and in the valley of the two great rivers beyond the desert (the Tigris and the Euphrates).

OPPRESSION OF THE CHILDREN OF ISRAEL

Then there was the great queen Hatshep-su, often called the Elizabeth of Egyptian history. She sent most interesting expeditions to discover unknown countries, and had an account of them, with fine illustrations, engraved on the walls of a magnificent temple she built near Thebes. But, interesting as is this strong queen, who tried so much to look like a man that she had a beard added to her portraits, we must pass on to the stirring times a little later when the descendants of Jacob, the children of Israel, had grown to be very numerous, and were grievously treated by the kings, or Pharaohs, as the Bible calls them, of the period. Rameses II is believed to have been the great oppressor of the Israelites, and we can see his face in the huge stone monuments he set up, and more wonderful still

SETI THE FIRST

It is hard to believe that this is the father of the Pharaoh who pursued Moses across the Red Sea

AN ARAB CAFE

These cafes are picturesque places where one sees the street life of Cairo at its best. Note the more humble style of Turkish pipe smoked by this Arab without being set on the floor.

is the photograph of his mummy which has been found with those of many of his race, and put into the museum in Cairo. Thus, the features into which so many looked with awe—perhaps the little Moses among them—are shown again to the world more than 3000 years after the great king's death. Magnificent were the temples and monuments set up by this dynasty of kings, among which we find the massive ruins at Karnak and Luxor, near Thebes. Bricks, such as the Israelites made for use in building store cities for their hard taskmasters, necklaces and jewelry, such as they may have taken when they "spoiled the Egyptians," are here in the museum before our eyes.

LIFE OF THE CHILD MOSES IN THE VALLEY OF THE NILE

As we again think over the romantic story of Moses rescued by the king's daughter, and brought up in the palace itself, we find endless objects with which to frame his life from childhood onwards. The toys and games, especially the animals—such as a modern looking spotted cow, and a cat with a movable jaw—must have pleased him, and a garden with trees and a pond, like one that is pictured on a wall, would be delightful for a child to play in. The little Moses may well have heard music from instruments such as those pipes and harps, and he must have enjoyed sailing and rowing on the Nile, in boats like those model ones on the shelves. The wall-paintings from the tombs show in their bright colors how the Egyptians amused themselves in the time of Moses, and before and after. There are the gay parties with music and dancing; a father getting birds with a sort of boomerang, the child holding on to his leg for fear of falling out of the boat; the mother gathering lotus flowers; the family cat retrieving the birds three at a time. And when the time came for the lessons, those reed pens and red and black paints were the sort with which the boy must have learned to write. One can fancy his enjoying the possession of one of those boxes of pens and paint, and see him poring over the papyrus rolls which held so much of the learning of the Egyptians. The Ten Commandments, brought down from Sinai by Moses had a great many details similar to the Book of the Dead which leads us to believe that there must have been much influence exerted by the latter on the former. The making and worship of the Golden Calf, which so angered the great leader, was suggested by the ancient worship of Egypt, brought home to us in endless forms by paintings and images of every description, as well as by the mummied forms of the animals held in such sacred reverence. For about 1000 years after this brilliant line of the Rameses dynasty, the history of Egypt, on the whole, was one of gradual decline and gathering trouble. It was during this time that the priests of the splendid temples became richer and richer and even more powerful, till at last they made themselves kings. When examining the mummies and their cases, we notice how many belong to priests and priestesses, door-keepers, incense-bearers, and other officers of the great religious colleges. Shortly afterward dynasties of foreigners came into power and the condition of the country became poorer with less resistance to outside foes when the kings of Assyria—the land of the two rivers—saw their chance, and began to attack Egypt on her own frontier, and then pushed their way over the Bridge of Nations. They overran the whole of the country, spoiling the harvests, so that the people starved, and their fine temples

One of the oldest forms of irrigating machinery in the world. The captive Hebrews in Mosaic times probably heard the creak of its ungreased wheels and watched the water gush from the pottery buckets which are fastened to the endless grass ropes.

SAKKAHS, OR WATER-CARRIERS

These men are sometimes negroes, as the seated man in the picture, as well as the boy who has taken water to drink from him. They are usually dervishes of the lowest grade, and are sometimes inclined to be fanatical. They are picturesque as well as a very necessary feature of Egyptian life.

and monuments began to fall into decay. We find the account of all this misery in the story of Assyria, where we find the description given by the conquerors with so much pride of their successes in Egypt. Egypt revived after this for a little while, only to be again devastated by the Assyrians, till they too fell under a new great power that rose in Asia, that of the Persians.

The Egyptians took every opportunity to revolt against the Persians. Between the second and third revolts, in the fifth century before Christ, a traveler came to Egypt, notebook in hand, for he was an author, anxious to collect material for his History of the Persian Wars. This was Herodotus, the Father of History, who set down in a pleasant, chatty way his impressions of the wonderful country, of the Nile in flood, of the pyramids, and other great buildings. Much of this interesting book we can read today, though Herodotus laid down his pen more than 2000 years ago.

Egypt becomes a part of Alexander's world empire

The Persians, in their turn, were driven out by the world-conqueror, Alexander the Great, of Greece. His stay was but short in Egypt; but his brilliant passage has left marks for all time. He flashed across the desert to worship at the shrine of the god Jupiter Ammon, whom he claimed as an ancestor, and he planned and founded the great city of Alexandria, called after him, which, under his successors, became one of the most important cities in the world. Alexandria still exists as one of the largest cities and principal seaports of Egypt. There are several interesting relics still extant in that city but on the whole it does not nearly approach the interest of interior Egypt.

Three centuries before Alexander an Egyptian king had employed Greek soldiers and allowed Greek traders to settle in the delta. Before this, Egypt had been closed to foreigners, much as China was till lately; but these Greeks found their way into the country, and little by little, their cleverness in trade, their wonderful power in art and in learning, spread Greek influence ever farther along the Nile. Naucrates became a famous Greek city during this time, and today explorers find much Greek treasure of all kinds buried in various parts of the Nile delta.

The kings succeeding Alexander were the Ptolemies, the first of the name being one of Alexander's generals. They were great builders and restorers, and to them we owe the Temple of Edfu, and the temples on the Island of Philae, near the great dam at Assuan. The Ptolemies also favored the city, named Alexandria after the founder of their fortunes, and started in it the immense library, afterwards burned, also the university, to which came some of the most famous Greek scholars. Another Ptolemy built the tall lighthouse, which was like the pyramids, one of the wonders of the ancient world. The flare from its top guided the shipping of Alexandria safely into its double harbor for years, but not a trace of it now remains. The same Ptolemy caused the Old Testament, originally written in the Hebrew language, and understood only by comparatively few people, to be translated at Alexandria into Greek, the beautiful language which was soon to be carried over the known world, and become the language of scholars everywhere. Another good work of this same king was to cause an Egyptian scribe named Manetho, who knew Greek well, to write in that language a history of Egypt and its religion, and though his actual records have been lost,

TEMPLE OF LUXOR, EGYPT

THE GREAT DAM, ASSUAN, EGYPT

other writers have copied from Manetho, and thus the lists of kings and other particulars he so carefully compiled have been of great use.

The beautiful Cleopatra was the last great ruler of the line of Ptolemies, and, sooner than fall into the hands of the invading Romans, she is said to have allowed a deadly serpent to bite her. So when they came to her palace they found her in all her regal splendor —but dead.

From Menes to Cleopatra, what a perspective of years! Fifty centuries and more before the birth of Christ, 7000 years ago, all full of work, full of struggle and every kind of human interest, full of happiness and sorrow.

We have but to look at the vast view again, and much of the old life will become so vivid and real to us that we can almost hear the dancing feet of the children at play in the little worn shoes, and the sad wail of the mourners carrying the mummy to its hidden tomb.

Egypt today, as the case with most of these ancient countries is merely the shadow of its former self; its inhabitants lack the energy and power which seem to have belonged to their ancestors. The French some years ago constructed the Suez Canal and on a sandbar which was built up from the dirt out of the canal the modern city of Port Said was located. It is in some ways the most cosmopolitan city in the world, being the gateway between the Occident and the Orient. In visiting Egypt the foreigner usually lands at Port Said or Alexandria. Then there is a ninety mile trip by rail to the city of Cairo. It seems quite odd to be riding by street car the six miles out from Cairo to the pyramids. It seems such an awe-inspiring thing to connect these ancient monuments with such a modern achievement. It is, however, typical of Egypt today in that ancient and majestic relics are on one hand in contrast with the impudent signs of modern native life on the other; the little Bedouin children play and the burros graze over spots the penetration of the sanctity of which once demanded the penalty of death.

Any great change in the life of such an ancient people could never have come about without the work of the great river that runs through Egypt. Life cannot be supported without water, and Egypt, which seldom has any rain, draws its entire supply from the Nile. This river which draining a basin of over a million square miles of land, carries down to the sea the melting snows of the mountains and the water received during the rainy season in Abyssinia and tropical Africa. These rains flood the Nile; the river overflows its banks, spreads far out to left and right, and fertilizes the soil with rich earthy deposits gathered in its course. That sediment is the soil of Egypt, and without it the land would be barren rock and sand. Egypt lives upon powdered mountains, carried to it by the Nile.

After the time of flood the Nile used to run low, but engineers have now made great dams which prevent the flood water of the Nile from running away, so that all the year round a sufficient store can be retained for the use of agriculture.

THE GREAT ASSUAN DAM

A few miles across the sand lies Cairo, and through Cairo runs the Nile. Six hundred miles up the Nile is the great Assuan Dam, 1¼ miles long, 90 feet thick at the bottom, 90 feet high, and 20 feet thick at the top; and this huge Nile dam holds enough water to make the desert of Egypt blossom as the rose.

THE ANCIENT EMPIRE OF THE MOGULS

HOW would you like to go to India, where the sun shines nearly the whole year through, where there are enormous rivers in the midst of rice fields and jungle, where bullocks pull the carts, buffaloes plough the earth, camels carry the traveler, elephants work like porters in the forest, and 300 millions of the simplest, kindest, and most childlike people under heaven get their scanty living and dream of the life beyond the grave?

For centuries India thought of scarcely anything else but the next world; now she is beginning to think about industry, agriculture, commerce, science, and a great many other sensible and useful activities.

You need not go to India just now; but you can keep the thought in mind and consider it. But first of all you must know what India is really like.

Well, to begin with, directly his steamer gets to the Suez Canal the traveler feels that he is in a new world. The sun is much hotter, the light is more dazzling, the air glows and throbs with the intensity of its radiance. It is almost impossible to sleep in a cabin through the Red Sea, and most people lie on deck at night with only a light covering over them. Slowly the air cools as the traveler approaches Bombay, and at first, in the cold dawn of his arrival, he is inclined to think that India is very little different from any other country in the Occident on a summer's day. It looks flat and colorless; just a line of broken islands; a smoky mass of roofs, towers, and factory chimneys; and all round these islands there is as much noise and shipping as you see in New York harbor. But as the sun gets stronger, the mist and the smoke disappear, the yellow walls of Bombay shine in the fierce glare, hills are seen on every side, and the sky turns turquoise, the sea turns royal blue, and the air suddenly flashes like a living soul.

A STRANGE MOTLEY WORLD

Once in the streets of Bombay—in spite of its electric cars and automobiles—the traveler feels that now he is, really and truly, in a new world—a world utterly new and utterly strange. It is not only the extraordinarily vivid glare on the walls of houses, not only the suffocating heat which puts him straight away into a

Turkish bath even as he sits perfectly still in his gharry—a shabby little Victoria drawn by a shabby little horse—and it is not only the Eastern character of the architecture and the Indian blue of the sky and the queer appearance of banyan-trees, with their roots hanging down from their branches like a girl's brown hair after a swim in the sea; no, it is not only these things which affect the traveler's mind with a sense of strangeness and difference: the real cause is the people.

PICTURESQUE STREET SCENES

The streets of Bombay are packed and crowded with thousands upon thousands of people, whose complexions, garments, headgear, as well as their whole manner, suggest a new world. Some are yellow, some are brown, some are black, and some are almost white; some of them wear robes as gorgeous as an emperor's, and some are all but naked; some wear a little twist of cloth on their heads, and some a turban vaster than the hat of the most vulgar woman now in London or Paris; and some are ferocious to look at, some are gentle as lambs, some are like our idea of Old Testament heroes, some are like Brutus, Nero, Julius Cæsar, and Dante.

Into whatever Indian city the traveler goes he finds the same thing—crowds of people differing from each other in color, features, expression, dress, language, habits, and religion: people who are more different than Russians from Spaniards, or Germans from Italians, or Britons from Turks. He is confused by all these millions of different Indians, and cannot discover which are the true representatives of the Indian nation.

He goes into the bazars, away from the European quarter, and there sees the real life of an Indian city. The word bazar stands for a native market street, and these market streets of India are the most interesting, perplexing, amusing, and confusing things imaginable.

The streets are very narrow, the gaily painted, sun-blistered houses are seldom more than one or two stories high, and the ground floor, occupied by the shop, is like a little barrow or a stall at a country fair. No window obtrudes between the counter and the people on the pavement, and the merchant either squats in the doorway or sits cross-legged on the counter.

THE NEVER-CEASING MULTITUDES FOREVER MOVING PAST THE SHOPS

From side to side the street is thronged by a slow-moving procession of humanity; everybody appears to be talking at once; nobody seems to want to buy, and nobody seems to want to sell; it looks as if the whole thing were merely a very elaborate "game of shops," and as if a number of rather big doll's houses had been ranged side by side for this purpose.

The traveler sees one old bearded merchant, a Mussulman, reading his Koran through a pair of worn spectacles, his lips moving and his finger following the print—reading it there on the counter of his shop, amid piles of brass pots, or carpets, or many-colored sweetmeats, or rolls of silk. And he sees, among these merchants on their counters or in their doorways, another man praying, and a woman examining her baby's head, and a Hindu merchant having his head shaved, and another puffing contemplatively at his enormous hookah pipe, and another dropping off to sleep with his hands clasped over a vast expanse of girth. And all the time the never-ceasing multitudes of chattering people go slowly by, their splendid garments flashing in the

bright sunlight, their many colored faces assaulted by a host of flies, and their bright eyes and their white teeth shining like diamonds.

Every now and then, in the midst of these shops, the traveler sees a wondrously ornate building, often gold colored and carved extravagantly, with a flight of steps leading to a dim interior.

THE GOLD COLORED TEMPLES OF THE PEOPLE WHO WOULD NOT KILL A FLEA

If, as well he might, the traveler takes one of these buildings for a music-hall, a circus, or photo-play theater, and if he attempts to enter, fumbling in his pocket for a rupee, he will be roughly seized and thrown back into the street, where—as likely as not—a miniature revolution will immediately take place.

For these buildings are Hindu temples, where gods and goddesses are worshipped with devotion. This is the Hindu holy place where no intruding unbeliever is ever permitted to set foot. During a festival the very streets in which these temples stand are closed against Europeans, lest a white man should pollute the sacred atmosphere with his degraded breath, and foul the holy ground with his heinous boot-leather. Some of the temples are more or less pretty in appearance, but nearly every one is marred by some repulsive carving meant to overawe and terrify the worshiper. One of these terrible gods is portrayed with an elephant's head on his shoulders, another is a frightful monkey, and the goddess Kali is represented with skulls and bones for ornaments, with a severed head in her left hand, a fearful, crimson-dyed sword in her right, and such an expression of murderous ferocity on her distorted face as would give a nervous child nightmare for a month of Sundays.

The finest of these temples belong to the Jains—pronounced Jynes—a sect of Hindus who are not only vegetarians, but so devoted to all forms of life that they will not even kill the fleas that poison them. They are a dwindling sect, in consequence, a flea-conquered race of humanity, bitten to death without a single scratch in self-defence; but they are immensely rich, and the fronts of their golden temples make a most striking effect in the bazars.

Then, every here and there, the traveler sees a most imposing building, usually pale blue and white, with a wide flight of stairs leading to the arched entrance, and with minarets shining against the azure of heaven from the roof. These are mosques, where the Mussulmans, followers of Mohammed, worship Allah, the one true and indivisible God. No statues or pictured windows decorate these mosques, nothing which by any stretch of the imagination could be considered a graven image or a possible cause of idolatry, for the Mussulman is descended from Father Abraham, and is like the Israelite of old, who worshiped one God, in the midst of innumerable heathens devoted to idols. So it comes about that the traveler can always distinguish between a temple and a mosque even from the outside, for the one is a mass of carved figures and contorted ornamentation, while the other is plain, simple, austere, and sometimes nobly beautiful.

But although the bazars are the soul of an India city they are by no means the soul of India. It is not until the splendid trains of the Indian railways—some of the carriages are fitted with a bath room—have carried the traveler far away from towns, and not until he has left his wayside station, perhaps in a bullock-cart, and has gone many miles into the open

THE JAMA MASJID AT DELHI, INDIA

This is India's greatest mosque and is the second largest in the world. It was built by Shah Jehan in the first part of the seventeenth century and possessed a sacred relic, a hair from the beard of the prophet. The illustration shows a crowd in the court and which is 325 feet square, dispersing after meeting at prayers.

country, that he begins to realize, apprehend, and receive into his own, the real soul of India.

How may be described this soul of India? It is something shy, timorous, wistful and appealing. It does not greet you with the rugged strength and boisterous self-confidence of Dover Cliff, or with the passionate sweetness of Italian hills, or with the sunburnt cheerfulness of France. It creeps towards you like a spaniel that fears to be scolded and hopes to be caressed. It is a little guilty and ashamed, as though it had stood for ages and ages with its face to the corner, and only now had received permission to turn round and face the world. You cannot say it is beautiful, but you would be blind of both eyes if you pronounced it dull, ugly, uninteresting. Contemplate slowly and thoughtfully this soul of India, and you will say at last that it is the saddest, quietest, gentlest, and most timorous soul in all this world's mysterious geography.

Never once will you hear Indian children shouting at their play, or see an Indian and his wife walking arm in arm across the fields, or feel one moment's thrill of joy and excitement from all these crowding millions of humanity. And this universal spirit of restraint and self-suppression in the people is the very spirit of India's scenery. The plains are almost level, and sometimes are as brown, parched, and arid as the sands of the desert; the jungle for the most part consists of shrubs, scrub, and undergrowth; the tanks — artificial lakes—are wide and beautiful, but sad beyond words; the rivers, except during the rains, are generally a few trickles of water winding desolately through a vast bed that reminds one of a stone quarry; the hills are low and gentle, covered with trees, and more or less green; the mountains, north and south, are wonderfully majestic, and in some parts more lovely far and even more romantic than the mountains of Europe, but they do not seem to belong to India. The real India lies between these mountains, a low-lying, gentle, undulating, eternally pensive country—a country where no one is in a hurry, no one is excited about anything, and where even the brightest sunshine is destitute of joy. You see the most gorgeous birds in the world, but you hear no such song as rings through our American woodlands.

At the edges of every river you see half-naked men—an army of them—washing clothes. In the fields you see colonies of men and women plowing, sowing and reaping—for all these occupations occur at the same time, just as in the Indian jungle you may see, all at once, trees in spring, summer, and autumn dress, and some bare for winter. And everywhere you see wells, to which women are moving through the green rice-fields with brazen vessels balanced on their heads, and at which men are working all day with their bullocks. And round the tanks children wait for the buffaloes to come out from the water to be driven back to the homestead. And in the jungle primitive people may be seen moving among the scrub with bows and arrows. And along the highways may always be seen caravans of camels, strings of bullock-carts, a procession of elephants, a herd of goats, and little groups of pilgrims carrying their sick or their dead to the sacred river and the burning-ground.

India is full of movement, but sad movement. It is the sorrowful movement of the elephant, not the gay and careless rapture of a colt. Sorrowfully toil the peasants, laboriously move the animals, draggingly creep the children.

But enter one of the villages, make yourself pleasant to the people, and straightway you will discover that these quiet and apparently sad Indians are a most winsome and agreeable folk. You will never meet with a more charming courtesy. The humblest peasant has the grace of a king, and will receive you with the most ingratiating charm. Forward will come the head man—the mayor of the village—and, salaaming before your honor, will beg you to be seated, will offer you curry and rice on a plantain leaf—you must eat with your fingers—and will offer you a cup of water. He will tell you, if you understand his language, that his bosom swells with pride because you, a great sahib, have come such a long way to see his humble village. And then he will ask questions: Are you one of a large family? Have you much money? What is the price of rice in your part of the world? If you admire his baby, and it happens to be a girl, he will beg you to accept it as a present.

The houses are built of mud walls, with roofs formed of interlaced palm leaves. Most of them have a veranda, where the men sleep; the interior, with no furniture, is shared by the women, children, poultry, cattle, and very often a parrot. A Hindu believes that his god becomes annoyed if he is not perpetually praised, and so a parrot is trained to say the god's name and a word or two of adoration; the Hindu takes it easy while the bird utters this monotonous chant from morning to night.

In most villages there is either a temple or a shrine, for the Hindus' religion is the central business of life. Sometimes they daub a tree or a rock with red paint, and worship that. Just outside many of the villages you will see most curiously shaped camels, horses, or elephants, made of mud and clay and painted in fantastic colors; these animals are provided by the villagers for their gods and goddesses, in case the divinities should wish to take a ride. In villages, or quarters of towns and cities, where those people live who are called helots, pariahs, or outcasts—that is to say, the lowest people in India, and there are some 70,000,000 of them—the temple is a very humble mud hovel, and the priests are called "black priests," and a real Brahman priest would rather die than speak to one of these black brothers.

THE DOCTOR WHO WOULD LET SEVENTY MILLION PEOPLE PERISH

A caste postman will not give letters into the hands of these outcasts; he flings them down contemptuously at the head of the village street. A caste doctor will not go to them when they are sick; the whole 70,000,000 might perish before he would go. A Brahman priest will not go to them when they are dying. Until Christians went to India these poor pariahs were the most wretched and despised people under heaven. But now, slowly and surely, Christianity is converting them into a bold and intelligent democracy.

Many temples of great splendor—in a certain sense of the word—are scattered throughout India. Some of them are set on the tops of hills, like the castles in Europe, and look very grand and impressive, flashing all their carvings and coloring in the blaze of the sun. The greatest of these temples have entrance gateways in the fashion of Chinese pagodas, painted, as a rule, red and yellow, and they are carved with hideous and repulsive faces.

The famous and holy city of Benares is crammed with extraordinary temples. In one you see a white bull feeding on rose petals from a huge golden dish, the pilgrims kneeling on the dirty floor—which is like a foul stable—in

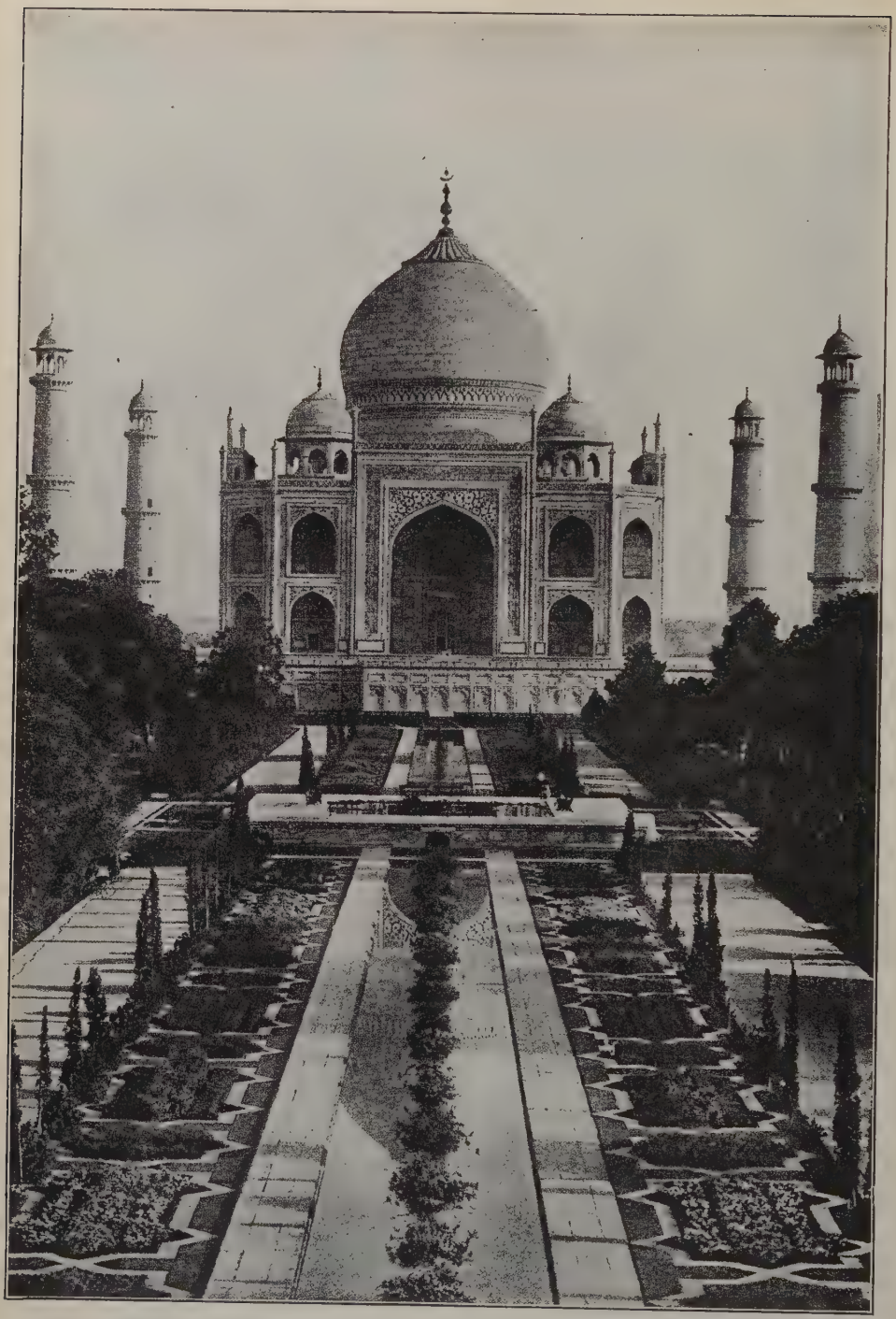
A GHAT AT BENARES, THE SACRED CITY OF THE HINDUS

worship and adoration. In another temple you fancy yourself in the monkey-house of the Zoological Gardens, for it is alive with sacred monkeys chasing the pilgrims for food. To the Mussulman all this is disgusting, revolting, and blasphemous; but the Mussulmans are 70,000,000, and the Hindus are 230,000,000. In spite of this great disparity in numbers, however, the Mussulmans would make holy war against the Hindus but for the Pax Britannica—or "British Peace"—as the peace maintained by the British Government is called.

PERHAPS THE MOST PERFECT BUILDING ON EARTH

It is in the old cities of India that one sees the most glorious buildings and the most beautiful architecture. In Agra, for instance, you breathe the very air of the great Mogul Empire, and the mosques of Islam there and in Delhi surpass in the sweet dignity of their refined beauty anything that is possessed in Europe. The marble floors, walls, and roofs are cut to represent flowers, and inlaid with precious stones. Some of the panels are carved and pierced so that they look like fretwork. In the palace of Shah Jehan at Agra there is one of these beautiful panels so cunningly carved that while people inside can look through and see everything, the person on the other side can see nothing at all of the interior. The Taj Mahal at Agra, standing in a cypress garden on the banks of the Jumna, is perhaps the most perfect building on this earth; it is the tomb built by Shah Jehan for his faithful wife, and there he and she now lie in tombs of marble,

Often, surely, the Mussulmans who visit these exquisite and superb creations of their dead emperors must look with questioning eyes and rebellious hearts at the hideous red-brick barns



THE TAJ MAHAL ("GEM OF BUILDINGS") AT AGRA, INDIA

Built by Shah Jehan, the great mogul of Delhi, as a tomb for his favorite wife. It was begun in 1632, and was twenty-two years in building. Travelers, painters and poets have all sought to describe the indefinable charm of this building.

which are erected to God, and which, sometimes, we fill with statues and images and symbols, which the Mussulman regards as the abomination of idolatry.

THE SPLENDID WORK THAT IS GOING ON IN INDIA

But much more is now being done than merely setting up these churches. Science is changing rivers here and there, so that waste deserts, where no man ever lived before, now hold a million families who thrive exceedingly. Men are also setting up immense factories, laying railway lines in every direction, building hospitals and schools, delving deep into the earth for coal and silver and improving agriculture. Closer and closer relations are being established between this land of rich resources and the western world of commerce.

So perhaps it is only a few dreamers who look back with regret on the days of the Great Moguls, days of hideous tyranny and incessant war, days of fiendish cruelty, assassination, murder, torture and brutality.

Children are now taught to read and write, the lowest outcast can enter a Government hospital, and the meanest peasant can claim justice from the proudest Brahman.

And India is waking up. Quietly and without excitement she is putting back the blankets of custom, raising her head from the pillow of superstition, and looking with slowly opening eyes towards the new sun of freedom and enterprise. The traveler finds nearly all the comforts of Europe in the new cities. The hotels have elevators, electric lights, bath-rooms, and French cooks. There is a proper water-supply and system of drainage. Indians have their clubs, and play cricket, polo, and tennis. At almost every railway station there is a good refreshment-room, and a large waiting-room fitted with lounges and arm-chairs, where a traveler may pass the night and take a bath in the morning free of charge. And though things are rather dearer than they used to be, a man may still live luxuriously in India on money that would render life hard and troublesome elsewhere. The peasant keeps a family on five cents a day; the factory hand is rich with twelve cents a day; and the schoolmaster is a Crœsus with four dollars a month.

Beautiful, if wistful and sad, is this great empire of India; and though it takes most people a little time to accustom themselves to the burning sun and incessant glare, it is a country where people live noble lives and are so happy that many of them settle there even when they can afford to come home.

THE CASTE SYSTEM

The vast population of India is made up of minute subdivisions, often consisting of a few families only, living isolated lives; mixing, of course, in the business of life, but hardly at all socially. It is this tendency that has greatly assisted in bringing about the system of "caste," which, as a custom permeating all classes of society, is only known in India proper. In practice, caste is primarily shyness in regard to bodily contact with one's fellowman, and, as a consequence of the personal exclusiveness thus incurred, caste has become largely a question of occupation as a means of livelihood. In this way a "caste" is a community, however small, that will eat, drink, smoke and marry together on equal terms. Anyone outside the ring thus formed is a stranger, and though there are nominally great general castes, like the Brahmans, spread in large numbers all over the country, in real life these are split up into innumerable sub-castes, which are, for the purposes of domestic intercourse,

separated from each other. A Brahman of Kashmir is not, in practice, a Brahman to a fellow caste-man hailing from Madras, nor would one of Bombay admit another from Bengal to the fellowship involved in the matters mentioned above. The isolation is as complete as the conditions of civilization will allow, and the superiority of one caste over another is a question as to which will take or refuse food or drink (smoking is included in drinking) from the other, or marry a daughter or refuse a daughter in marriage; though marriage is confined within much stricter limits than contact in any other way.

THE RELIGIONS OF INDIA

So also is Indian society divided into small sects, each with its own system of ethics and customs, so far as regards the practice. There are main religions, indeed, but sect is the soul of religious custom, and any given custom does not extend, without material alteration, very far from the place in which it is observed.

The great indigenous religion is that known as "Hinduism," which has adopted caste as a distinguishing feature. Broadly, it may be described as a systematized animism, or worship of spirits, seeing a soul, as a kind of living background, in everything. From Hinduism there has sprung in comparatively modern times a conspicuous reform in the shape of Sikhism, the religion of the Sikhs of the Punjab, who have played so important a part in the more recent history of the country.

The original tenets of the Sikh religion included a belief in one God of the universe, and a rejection of idolatry, caste, immurement of women, use of intoxicants and tobacco, pilgrimage and other practices of the surrounding Hindus. But it has largely fallen away from these ideals and tends to slip back gently into Hindu ethics. Later it became the cult of a strong military society with certain special ceremonies and customs.

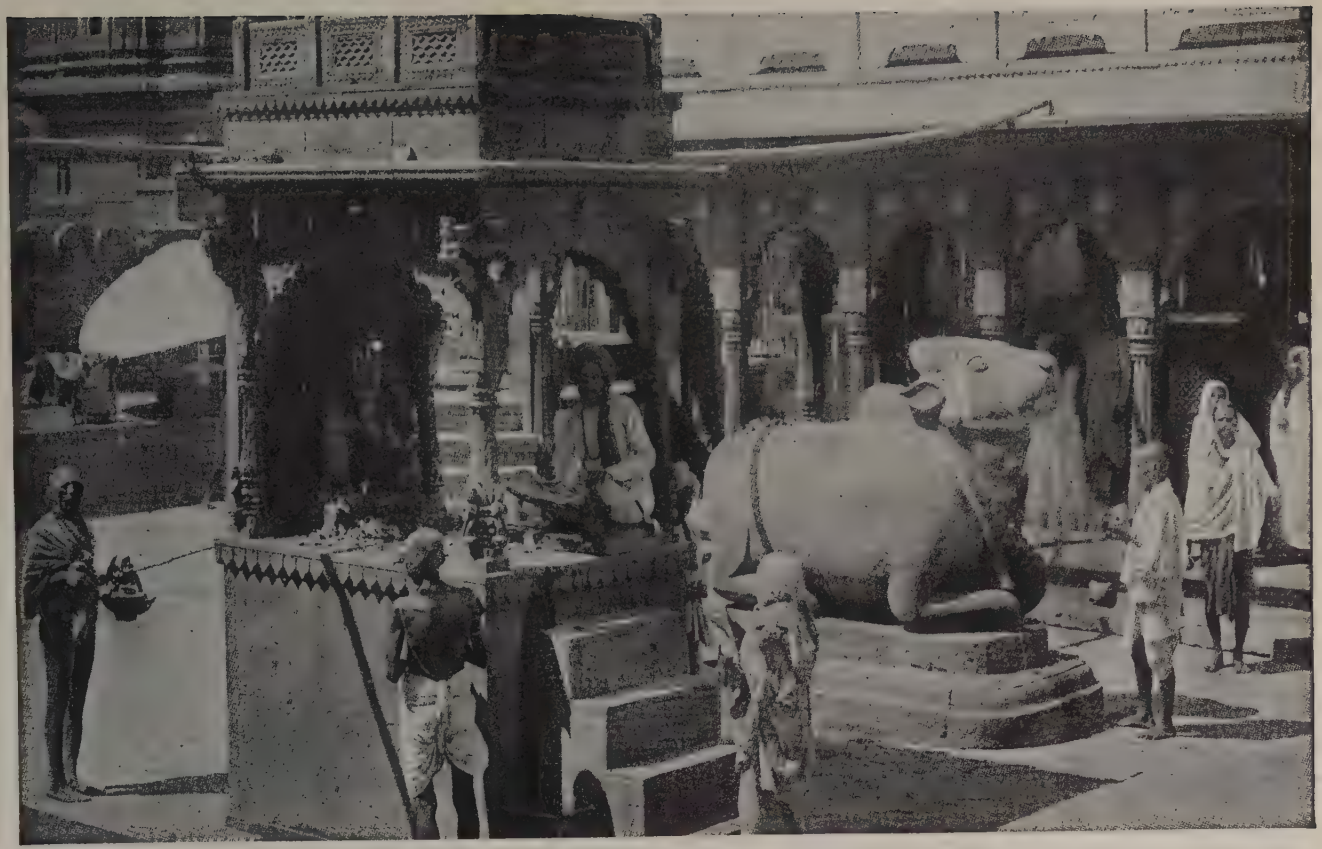
There is also a significant sacrament or communion of consecrated butter, flour and sugar, of which all the faithful present must partake, without reference to caste, in memory of the original rejection of the caste system by the early teachers.

Allied generally also to Hinduism, and sprung very long ago out of the ancient Brahmanism, from which the Hinduism of today is itself ultimately derived, is Jainism, the religion of the Jains. The Buddhists and Jains, who are spread in numbers over many widely separated parts of India, were originally Hindu non-conformists, and the latter still largely bear that character. But whereas Buddhism put together its theory of religious life without a soul, Jainism emphasizes its existence and endows all things with life. The main expression of this line of thought is the extraordinary sanctity which Jains attach to life in any form, inducing many of them to cover their mouths with a small hanging veil in order to avoid swallowing small insects.

The other great religious force in India is Mohammedanism, in theory identical with that which prevails elsewhere in the world, but in practice, everywhere, except among the educated, largely tinged with Hindu customs and superstitions.

PURITANS AND RITUALISTS OF THE EAST

Both these great religions are divided into two main classes, which correspond roughly to the Puritans and Ritualists known in other parts of the world. The Hindus consist of Saivas and Vaishnavas, after the two great deities, Siva and Vishnu, and the Mohammedans, as elsewhere, of



A GYAN BAPI, OR POOL OF KNOWLEDGE

Shows a Hindu Siva shrine built over a well, with the typical Bull of Siva in front, and the images of the god and his wife Parbati, covered with garlands. Religious mendicants are bringing offerings. The attendant priest is sitting in the shrine, while a poor and a well-to-do man are offering prayers.

Sunis and Shi'ahs, though the latter are not numerous in India. But though the ideas involved in Puritanism and Ritualism do to a certain extent control the customs of their respective followers, yet the chief fact to grasp is that in India it is minute sect and caste that govern custom in practice.

SIKH PRIEST

The peculiarities of the Sikh costume consist in the wearing of the five K's, viz.: (1) the kes, or uncut hair of the whole body. (2) The Kachh, or short drawers ending above the knee. (3) The kara, or iron bangle. (4) The khanda, or small steel dagger. (5) The khanga, or comb. In the case of the priests, these symbols of their creed are worn in a greatly exaggerated manner, as shown in the illustration.

In addition to all this there sprang up in all parts of the country in the Middle Ages, with very many followers ever since, great eclectic religious reformers (Guru Nanak, the founder of Sikhism was one of them), who went far afield for their inspiration and tenets, not disdaining those of Christianity. Their teachings have deeply colored the beliefs and ideas of the whole modern population; so that, to use very general terms, the average civilized Hindu of today believes theoretically in one God, or Supreme Spirit, and practically in a number of minor and spiritual powers of varying importance.

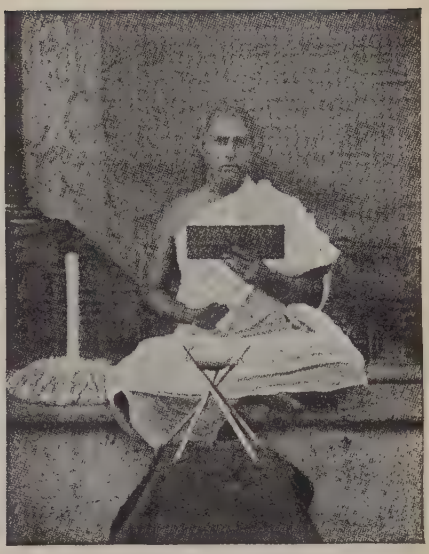
The principal object of all domestic and religious customs throughout the country, whatever the form of faith, is to ward off supernatural injury and the evil eye, which last notion in India gives concrete form to an idea altogether different from that ordinarily current in Europe. In India the "evil eye" is the glance of pleasure or approval, and it is "evil" because it rouses the jealousy of the guardian spirit and causes it to do mischief to the object admired. A child is in greater danger from the "evil eye" of its own doting mother than of any other person. This belief leads to all sorts of curious results; for instance, the placing of black arresting spots on the soles of a crawling infant's feet, and the deliberate marring by a flaw of an otherwise perfect design in a work of art.

THE PARSEES

Allusion must also be made to the Parsees, a very small body or race in the country, under one hundred thousand all told, who by conspicuous ability and energy have raised themselves into an important community with a commanding influence. The name is properly Parsi, or Persian, and the Parsees are the descendants

KRISHNA WORSHIP

A quiet family observance of the Janamashthami (a ceremony on the eighth day after a birth), held at the commencement of the long Indian Lent in commemoration of the birth of Krishna. A sort of Christmas Day.



A JAIN SAINT

Jain ascetics never light a fire, nor cook and always brush the ground clear of insects before sitting down, all to avoid destroying life

THE HOLI FESTIVAL

The spring Saturnalia of the Hindus is the Holi festival, which is much mixed up with the cult of the great goddess Devi in her distinctive form of Durga. She is here represented by a boy riding a lion, accompanied by two other boys dressed as Sakhis, or female attendants.

PROTECTING A HINDU HOME

To prevent evil spirits from entering the house, Hindu women often draw cabalistic designs on the door, on the walls, or in front of the doorstep.

of Persian refugees who left their country for India rather than depart from their ancient faith and become Mohammedans.

They are still Zoroastrians and fire-worshippers, and have customs of their own, though in some ways they have succumbed to surrounding influences.

Religious holidays

The long-established habit of confining many classes of the women strictly to the hearth and home has had its own effect on the daily lives of the people, and has resulted in the creation of an extraordinary number of quasi-religious ceremonies throughout the year—a large portion of female life being occupied in their performance. In considering domestic customs of the country this fact must always be borne in mind.

Marriage ceremonies

A great series of family ceremonies is connected with marriage, for courtship finds no place in the ordinary Indian household. A marriage usually starts by the appointment of a match-maker by the girl's family to seek a suitable boy; no easy matter, in view of the many caste and other customary restrictions as to choice. When the negotiations are accomplished, and the dowry is settled, there is a formal betrothal by making the bride's people a present at the bridegroom's house, which commences the marriage proper.

This is followed by the marriage procession on the occasion of the first formal visit of the bridegroom to the bride's house for the marriage itself, after which, at varying periods of time, there is a second and less important procession for bringing the bride to her future home. This she usually enters as the most lowly member of the family. Such, in outline, are the main ceremonies connected with an orthodox marriage, varied in many quaint details according to caste, religion and position in life.

In a Hindu household the marriage ceremonies are prolonged and continuous. When the marriage is agreed, the bridegroom's father visits the bride, and they each provide a little rice, which a Brahman mixes up and then divides between them, to be subsequently parched in a ceremonial manner. Then occur conventional performances day by day in both houses for a week before the bridegroom's procession starts, including the setting up of the marriage shed and anointing the boy and girl. Among these in places is the quaint ceremony of swallowing the mango fiber. The mother's brother puts a present of money and ornaments into her left hand, while the barber's wife gives him the center of a mango leaf hung up in the marriage shed, which he presents to the mother's mouth. She bites off a piece and puts it in the hollow of her right hand, into which he pours a little water. The mother then holds it over her daughter's head and gulps it all down.

The bridegroom's procession is conducted with all the pomp available, but he must take a little of the water in which he is bathed before he starts, to be mixed with that in which the bride is bathed after he arrives at her house. At the house door follow the first scattering of rice over the bridegroom, the ceremony of the curry pestle, during which the family pestle is applied to the bridegroom's cheek, and the marking of his forehead with yellowish sandalwood paste; but these proceedings are generally confined among the rich to merely making wedding presents. After arrival follow the important acts of making bracelets of a few grains of rice wrapped in mango leaves for the right wrist

HINDU MARRIAGE PROCESSION

The band at the head of the marriage procession of an ordinary well-to-do Hindu consists nowadays of players on both European and Indian instruments; and as these are not attuned together and play indifferently music of either sort, the result is most incongruous to American ears.

of the bridegroom and the left wrist of the bride, and the adoration of the bride, and sometimes of the groom as well, with offerings of sweets and ornaments.

The bride is next seated between her mother's knees, fully adorned in her bridal head-dress of date leaves, for the nail-cutting ceremony, which is solemnly performed on the hands and feet of both by the family barber's wife. After this the bridal pair are seated in the marriage shed. The marriage service consists of repeating Sanskrit verses and various acts of worship, and includes throwing incense on the fire and scattering rice. It is performed by a Brahman, while the father of the bride seats her in his lap, which act is tantamount to giving the girl in marriage. The positive acts of marriage are the knotting together of the clothes of bride and bridegroom, and the circumambulation of the sacrificial fire. The bride goes first, and the fire must be kept to the right and walked around five times. A winnowing sieve must be carried by the pair, from which rice is scattered by shaking it. This ceremony winds up with a fumigation with incense by a Brahman.

There follow the application of the vermilion marriage spot by the bridegroom to the bride's forehead at the parting of her hair, the stopping of the groom at the house door by the bride's sisters to answer set riddles, and the stealing of the groom's shoes to make him get over his nervous silence (he is only a boy, as a rule) and ask for them. The long ceremonial day ends with the worship of the family guardian spirit by the pair, after which the bridegroom goes to his people, and the bride remains with hers. Four days later the bride and groom are bathed, and their marriage bracelets are taken off, and at last the marriage proceedings proper

come to a final conclusion. But even then the bride is not a wife till, with many more ceremonies and a procession, she is sent to live with her husband when she is old enough.

Marriage among the Mohammedans

Strictly speaking, there are no marriage ceremonies among the Mohammedans, except the few allowed by the Sacred Law, and this, of course, is the rule among the educated and more highly placed. A prominent feature of marriage among most classes is the grant of an absurdly large dowry to the bride by the groom, which is, however, her protection; for, if divorced as would otherwise be easily possible, she can claim and recover as much as is practicable of her dowry.

Among the uneducated classes of the Moslems there are, in India, as in other Mohammedan countries, a great number of ceremonies, of which the following may be noticed here. The use of red paper, or paper sprinkled with red, for documents and letters; the drinking of sherbet, and the giving of sweetmeats and small presents to certain privileged persons at every step are specialties of a great part of the ceremonial. After the preliminaries have been arranged and presents have been exchanged between the contracting houses, there follows the formal betrothal, of which an interesting feature is the presentation of a plain ring, a red kerchief and sweets to the bridegroom, and the letter of promise on behalf of the girl fixing a day for the wedding.

All this takes place before the marriage procession, which is conducted much on the Hindu lines, and the making of a number of conventional presents to the bride. Then comes the showing of the bride to the groom, to whom she is always a stranger, and some curious additional ceremonies. of which a peculiar feature is that the bride must keep her eyes shut throughout and not put her foot to the ground, being carried about in the arms of a maid, even to her husband's house on the day after the marriage. There is a further ceremonial there for two or three days, after which the bridegroom goes with the bride to her home for a ten days' stay. This is the real marriage, as a room is provided for the pair, into which the bride has to walk—this being the first time she is allowed to put her foot to ground since the ceremonies began. At her entrance the groom is expected to salaam to her. If he neglects this, showers of abuse are poured upon him.

The funeral pyre

Speaking in general terms, Hindus may be said to burn their dead; but this is far from being the universal rule, as many castes and tribes bury. When an ordinary Hindu dies, the body is taken out of the house and placed on a bier at a spot outside the village where the mourners can collect, and the house is then purified with fresh plaster. The bier is carried to the banks of a river, where the corpse is bathed, dressed in new waist-cloth and sheet, and the mouth washed. It is then placed on the funeral pile, while the chief mourner, usually the next heir, has his head and face shaved. After the pyre is lighted with a long torch by the chief mourner, he walks round the corpse five times, touching the lips each time with the torch.

When the body is nearly all burned, everyone present throws five sticks into the fire and helps to put it out. The unconsumed portions of the body are thrown to the fish in the river. The funeral party then wash the place of burning and a sacred sweet basil shrub is planted in the neighborhood. After this they all bathe in the river at another spot and go home.

Next day the chief mourner pours a little fresh milk on the burning place, and on returning home a pot of fresh milk, with a hole in it, so made that the milk can drip away, is hung up in a tree, which he walks round three times, and then gives a funeral feast to the relatives. For the next ten evenings a lamp is lighted in honor of the deceased at various spots on the route from the pyre to the house.

On the third, tenth and other days up to a month after the death, there are special ceremonies, of which feeding Brahmans is a prominent feature; and on the last of these days the widow puts on her weeds, to be worn for life—in the upper classes white, in the lower varying colors. Hindu corpses, when buried, are usually placed in the grave fully dressed and seated cross-legged, facing the north, with cakes in the hands.

As regards widows, it should be remembered that the well known prohibition of remarriage and being turned into the family servants, even in the case of child widows, was always far from being universal, and that the equally well known custom of *sati*, or burning of widows with the corpses of their husbands, was never common. They owe their notoriety to the horror induced by them in strangers, and to their prevalence among the richer and more socially prominent classes. It should always be borne in mind that the maintenance of more than one wife is a luxury which only the comparatively few well-to-do have ever been able to indulge in. The exigencies of family finance has, in India, as elsewhere in the civilized East, confined a man to one wife at a time.

MOHAMMEDAN FUNERAL CUSTOMS

Among the Moslems the body is first thoroughly bathed and cleaned, and then dressed in a fresh loin-cloth. A sheet is next taken and a hole torn in the middle, through which the head of the corpse is thrust. After this it is carried to the graveyard covered with a sheet. Here prayers are recited, which differ for a man, woman, or child, and the corpse is laid in the grave with the head to the north. The body is roofed over with bamboos or planks, and thatching grass plastered over with mud. The grave is then filled in with earth, every member of the family present taking a hand in this.

For the next few days nothing is cooked in the house, the family being supplied with food by relatives. On the third day there is an interesting final ceremony. The whole of the family male connections assemble in an open place, where some grain, flowers, betel-leaf and sherbet are collected. Each man present takes up a grain, blesses it by a formal benediction, and drops it on a cloth, until the heap is exhausted. The grain is distributed to mendicants and the sherbet is drunk by the party, while a certain chapter of the Koran is recited.

In the course, then, of the festivities and ceremonies connected with the ordinary domestic events of family life there is much to occupy the spare time of the people, without reference to the fixed festivals and other performances involved in the exercise of their religion. These, too, are very numerous and cover such operations as plowing, sowing, planting, protecting, harvesting, winnowing and measuring the crops, and such matters as protecting flocks and herds and the daily or periodical worship of the tools and implements of trades and callings, and also the worship of the personal or family or caste guardian gods and spirits. Further, the village demigod or supernatural hero has his or her special cult and ceremonial on no

account to be neglected. The gods and demigods or sanctified heroes of the Hindus have their exact counterparts among the Mohammedans in the shape of deceased saints, who have to be propitiated in the same manner. And so the eternal round of feast, fast, or similar obligation never ceases.

The two great means to be found outside the home for diversifying private life are the holding of fairs and the making of pilgrimages. There is always a local fair not very far off, and there are great recurring fairs held at fixed places and at fixed periods, sometimes years apart, and often on a very large scale. A pilgrimage to some celebrated holy spot or shrine is a great undertaking, which it is the hope of most villagers to accomplish at some time during life. It involves, on arrival, the performance of ceremonies held to be of vital religious importance, and the expenditure of more money than the pilgrim can properly afford.

Formal religious festivals

The formal religious festivals of the Hindus vary greatly, but one or two may be looked on as more or less universal. Of these the most prominent is the Holi, held in spring, a kind of Saturnalia of very ancient origin, in which the whole of the lower orders join, whatever the creed they may profess. The chief features are the lighting of the Holi fires with much singing, and throwing red and saffron powder over each other's clothes. There is also some passing or jumping through bonfires on the part of aspirants to special local sanctity.

In the autumn falls the pretty Diwáli, or "Feast of Lamps," when everyone must clean and light up his house and burn at least one lamp outside it at night; so that when the spirits of his dead revisit it they may find it nice and bright for their reception. Then in the villages follows the Godhan, when cowherds go round to their employers in a state of semi-intoxication, with a sing-song, and collect presents in a fashion common in rural Europe.

For four months in every year there is a kind of Lent, analogous to that of the Buddhists, from July to October, during which it is unlucky to celebrate marriages, repair roofs, or construct beds. It represents the sleep of the god (usually Vishnu), and there is a fast as the god commences his rest, and a feast at his awakening, when whole villages will run riot with feasting and dancing.

Festival of absolution

Dasahra signifies "the absolving tenth"—that is, the tenth of particular Indian months, when sins can be washed away by prescribed performances. The days usually selected are the 10th of Jaith (during July) and the 10th of Asauj (during October). The feast in July is a one-day function, generally in honor of the birth of Ganga, the Ganges deified as the great sacerdotal purifier. Bathing in the Ganges and in other sacred streams and sheets of water representing the Purifier, absolves from sin in varying degrees, and in this connection it is of importance to note, as illustrating many Indian habits and ideas, some of which are, hygienically speaking, disastrous, that water purifies—any kind of water is efficacious for this purpose. The feast in October is a great public festival, held wherever possible. It is the Dasahra proper and lasts ten days, or rather nights, winding up with a general fire-sacrifice and throwing of images of the goddess into the nearest stream. The last night has also naturally come to be attached to the idea of war, and is now the "Night of Victory," beloved of soldiers and princes. The means

and implements of war are worshiped and revered; feasting is indulged in and plays are performed commemorating the wars recorded in the two great Indian epics—the *Ramayan* and the *Mahabharat*.

Open air dramas

Of a nature somewhat similar to that of the fixed festivals are the interminable, long-winded, open-air dramas founded on the Hindu epics. Of these one of the most famous and persistently played year after year is the *Ram Lila*, "Play of Ram." This represents the story of Ram and Sita, originally the hero and heroine of the great epic *Ramayan*, who have been exalted to the Godhead itself, and into the personification of the highest form of female virtue. The whole legend is faithfully gone through, from the banishment of Ram and Sita the abduction of Sita by the monster Rawan, to her recovery through the good offices of the monkey Hanumān and his army. The scene closes with the burning of a huge effigy of the monster, to the delight of the crowd.

Mohammedan festivals

The chief peculiarities of the Mohammedan festivals is that in India, as elsewhere they wander round the secular year, as the lunar year, which is followed for religious purposes by the Mohammedans, is about ten days shorter than the solar. This difference is important, as every festival recurs once in every thirty-six years.

As in the case of the Hindu festivals, the whole population will join in some of those of the Mohammedans for the fun of the thing. The most prominent is the Mohurrum, which purports to represent a miracle play in commemoration of the deaths, or as it is called, the martyrdom, of Hasan and Husain, the grandsons of Mohammed through his daughter Fatima. It lasts ten days, and is essentially a Shi'ah

A PARSI LADY AT HER DEVOTIONS

The Parsis use fire as a medium and not as an object of worship. The purifying and light-giving element was thought by Zoroaster to be the most befitting symbol of the Godhead. In the fire sandalwood and frankincense are burned.

PECULIAR DRESS

The Dogras are a military Hindu race in the Western Himalayas and the Punjab, of which the Maharaja of Kashmir is the chief representative. The illustration shows a charcoal burner wearing the peculiar dress of the people.

THE MOHURRUM FESTIVAL, MADRAS

Mohammedan troops in procession with the *Tabut*, or model of the tombs of the martyrs Hassan and Husain. Some "Mohurrum dancers" are shown in the foreground. They are supposed to represent the followers of Husain who were killed at the same time as their leader.

festival, though orthodox Sunis will join in it on the last day to commemorate the Creation, it being remembered that Mohammedans, like Christians, accept the old Jewish cosmogony.

But whatever the origin or purport of the festival, it is now to the people an occasion for mighty crowds and immense processions, accompanied by horse-play of all kinds. The carrying of the *tabut* or *tazia*, brilliantly illuminated models of the tombs of Hasan and Husain, in full procession at night, with dancers representing their fighting martyred relatives, is a principal religious feature of the festival to the orthodox, while the Mohurrum fires, of doubtful origin, are the chief superstitious feature to the ignorant masses in India, both Mohammedan and Hindu. They are kept burning in pits all through the festival, even by the poorest, and over them passers-by make vows, while crowds dance round them all the nights long, leaping through the flames and scattering the burning brands.

The Ramzan, or "Fasting Month," from new moon to new moon, is often kept with surprising fidelity by Indian Mohammedans, and in years when it occurs in successive hot seasons it is a great tax and hardship on the people, as they can neither eat nor drink from sunrise to sunset. The Ramzan closes with the Idu'l-fitr, or "Feast of breaking the Fast." This is merely an occasion for celebrating the general feeling of relief and rejoicing. There are no set ceremonies. Families simply dress themselves up, pay visits to each other, and do anything they can invent in the way of amusement.

SUPERSTITIOUS BELIEF IN SUPERNATURAL POWERS

Besides the regular pilgrimages and fairs involved in the practice of their

faith by the orthodox, there is an irregular and superstitious but equally common form of both arising out of the cult of supernatural powers. This chiefly shows itself in worship at the tombs or shrines of bygone popular heroes, or even at the abodes of sanctified living personalities; and in this matter the Indian populations exhibit a remarkable unanimity. The stories related of departed or existing holy personages, and the acts of veneration thought advisable in order to secure their good offices, hardly vary. The venerated quick and dead can all grant desires, cure or induce disease, protect the sanctity of themselves or their abodes by miraculous deeds, and inflict injury on scoffers and unbelievers by uncanny means, and they are equally ready to shower mysterious blessings on devout followers. They vary in name, indeed, according to religion. To the Mohammedan they are saints; to the Hindu demigods, or simply demons and heroes; to the semi-civilized and the savage they are gods. But by whatever name they may be called and to whatever faith they may be attached, they are all fundamentally the same supernatural powers, with the same attributes and capacities, and are worshipped in the same way wherever one observes them. In fact they and their cult are alike survivals of the primeval animism, or spiritworship, of the populations prevalent in the ancient days before the foundation of even the oldest of the philosophies which the religious tendency of the human mind has imposed on the Indian peoples.

The ministers of these holy persons and places are wandering companies of bards, who visit the towns and villages, sing songs and epics, often couched in highly poetical language, tell stories to the people and inculcate the efficacy of the spiritual services of the particular masters they serve, until the names of these and the details of the tales about them become veritable household words. Such visitations are always welcome, and the oftener a story of this kind is told, and the more familiar it becomes, the greater the pleasure caused by it seems to be.

Holy men and alms giving

Another prominent feature of Indian daily life, which intrudes itself on the observation of all, is the prevalence of the ubiquitous mendicants, whether Hindu, Mohammedan, or freethinking. They are very numerous, belong to an immense number of petty sects, and go by many different names, but are alike in doing nothing for a living except preying on the superstitions of the people. For they are all "holy" in the sense that they are believed to be able to bring about wishes and desires and the fulfilment of hopes in some supernatural way. A common name for them is *fakir*, though this is an imported Mohammedan term, meaning "poor, without possessions, mendicant."

Eccentricity of appearance or habits is a part of their stock-in-trade, quite as much as the claim to supernatural powers. In this way they will do almost anything that will attract attention—go entirely naked, smear themselves with ashes, mutilate their bodies, lie on spikes, stand for years, stiffen their joints, sit between fires, wear any kind of extraordinary costume, live in silence or solitude, and so on. But whatever they are and whatever they do, they are an ever-present and real trouble, and a perpetual source of domestic excitement to the workaday householder and his female belongings.

Professional dancers

There is one point on which the orthodox Indian, Hindu or Moham-

AN INDIAN DANCING GIRL

These are strolling artists who may be engaged at the numerous festivals held to celebrate betrothals, marriages, etc · they will perform throughout the night with a wearying monotony both in the posturing and accompaniment. The musical instruments possess three or four playing strings, and under these are stretched twelve to twenty-nine others.

medan, differs from the inhabitants of the Western world to such an extent that he cannot understand the European attitude towards it at all. To him, dancing is an amusement for viewing, not performing personally. The Indian dancer, so well known as the nautch (*nach*) girl, is a professional to the manner bred, and belongs to a recognized class or caste. That other men and women should care to dance together, as at a ball, is incomprehensible to the ordinary Indian, and he never really grasps the feeling that prompts the European so to behave. The performance of the nautch girl, on the other hand, though in truth very difficult of accomplishment, are to European eyes exceedingly dull and tame—merely a slow, unmeaning posturing by a woman so heavily clad as to be ungainly in her costume. There must be a charm about it, however, to the initiated, as a good performance will keep an Indian audience enthralled for hours, and celebrated dancers can command high prices. A current of religious feeling runs behind all this, and dancing girls are a privileged class in many senses, though their moral character is of the loosest. That they are a survival of a very ancient worship by dancing or conventional posturing is shown in their formal dedication to the art, and in many cases to particular temples, their special privileges and their peculiar superstitious practices.

TEMPLE GATEWAY, NAGASAKI
The stone lanterns in the foreground are quite striking as are the tori in the background.

THE STORY OF JAPAN

The Land of the Rising Sun

Off the western shores of Europe lies the group of islands which forms the homeland of England. Half-way around the world, off the eastern shores of Asia lies another group which forms the homeland of Japan. More than 4000 islands, ranging from Hondo, the largest, to tiny specks which are mere rocks coming up out of the ocean, stretch in a chain that is over 2400 miles long. If the islands were to be transplanted to the Atlantic, off our own eastern coast, they would extend from Labrador to Cuba. The shape of their islands has often been compared by the Japanese to that of the dragon-fly.

The Empire of Japan includes the great peninsula of Korea, acquired by annexation in 1910. It has a coast line half again as long as that of Florida and it resembles that state somewhat in shape. Korea, the Land of the Morning Calm, is as large as Great Britain, and, like the islands of original Japan, has a long history of its own, but not so long as that of China. The Japanese have changed the name to Chosen and they have renamed most of the rivers and cities, but the more common Korean names are still widely used.

The sun rising out of the Yellow Sea seems to have invested Japan with a sort of mysterious spirit during the past ages and the Chinese look to the East towards this Island Kingdom with something of awe. Thus Japan, this Land of the Rising Sun came to be looked upon as a mysterious and sacred country, and its people proudly claim descent from the shadowy great ones. The beliefs which grew up round the old picturesque stories led, in course of time, to the national worship of unseen gods and spirits, of ancestors and powers of Nature, which still has strong hold in Japan. This religion is called "Shinto," a word that means "the way of the gods."

THE PEOPLE OF OLD JAPAN WHO WERE EVER DRIVEN BACKWARD BY INVADERS

It is generally thought that the first people to settle in Japan were the Ainu, who came across the narrow sea from Siberia; and a delightful change they must have found it in the south-

ern islands, with their pleasant and warm climate, and beautiful, fertile country. The climate on the east coast of Japan is tempered by a warm stream from the south. The Ainu, however, were ever pushed back from the more desirable parts of the land by newcomers of higher civilization. Some were of Mongol race, like the Chinese, and came from the neighboring continent across the Sea of Japan, from Korea and what is now Russian and Chinese Manchuria.

Other new-comers came floating along the warm, dark stream from Southern Asia. These were of Malay race. Waves of these two races came time after time, and they are the true ancestors of the Japanese people, but the Ainu have never been driven entirely out of the country. There are still some thousands of them who are now living apart from the other people. They are remarkable for their general hairiness.

They are a peaceable people, not caring for progress, but with many good qualities. They gain their living chiefly by fishing and hunting in the dense forests which harbor wild animals and game, in the northern island of Yedo.

A LINE OF EMPERORS THAT HAS RULED FOR MORE THAN 2500 YEARS

The Japanese keep many festivals; two of the principal ones are February 11 and April 3. On the first of these days they celebrate the accession of their earliest emperor, and on the second the day of his death. His name was Jimmu, and he is said to have lived more than twenty-five centuries ago. The Japanese claim that from him their one dynasty, or family, of emperors has ruled in unbroken succession ever since; but the dates for the first part of this long time are very uncertain. Still, we know that the Japanese were advancing in civilization, and the early independent tribes were steadily passing under the leadership of one dominant tribe.

The history of Korea too goes very far back. More than a thousand years before Christ, there was a migration of the old civilized Chinese into the mountainous peninsula. They ousted the cave-dwellers, and formed a cluster of independent states, which later united under one ruler. A great stream of Chinese and Koreans poured into Japan, and merged with its people during the centuries before and after the birth of Christ, and the name of a fabulous great Japanese empress, Jingo, stands out in the third century of our era as making the conquest of the land of Korea.

HOW THE MIKADO BECAME A SACRED FIGURE, HIDDEN FROM HIS PEOPLE

Nothing is certain about these early stories, except that there was much coming and going between the peninsula and the islands. We know that the Japanese, like the Chinese, busied themselves quite early with bringing water to their rice-fields, making canals and developing trade and manufactures. They also from the first paid great reverence to their ancestors. By degrees the person of the ruler, the Emperor, or Mikado, became sacred and unapproachable to the mass of the people.

It was about the sixth century, when the Angles and Saxons were settling in their new homes in Britain, that the religion of Buddha spread into Japan by way of China and Korea. Eventually it took its place side by side with the older national religion of Shinto, not driving it out, but supplementing it, as it were; and beautiful Buddhist temples, as well as Shinto shrines, rose up throughout the country.

Troublous times followed. There were many grades, or different kinds,

IN THIS MAP THE JAPANESE EMPIRE IS WITHIN THE DOTTED LINES

of nobility all fighting to be first, and many officers and ministers, into whose hands the real government of the kingdom passed, as the Mikado became more and more a mere puppet in a gilded prison, his person sacred and invisible, except to the highest officials. The head of the acting Government for 700 years was the Shogun. Yoritomo was the name of the first Shogun. He was a great general and organizer, and died the same year that King John ascended the throne of England. The last Shogun gave up his power, henceforth to live as a private gentleman, in 1868. He died in January, 1914, a highly honored citizen. The Japanese appreciate the fact that his abdicacy of the Shogunate probably saved their country from a disastrous civil war.

In many ways the state of affairs in Japan during the rule of the Shoguns may be compared to that of Britain before and during the Wars of the Roses. Quarrels between great rival families were fought out in pitched battles; nobles lived in their strong castles, surrounded by armed retainers called samurai, and when a common foe arose, those who held the land were

bound to provide forces to meet the danger, very much in the same way as was done in England in feudal times.

One of these times of national danger arose towards the end of the thirteenth century,when Kublai Khan, the Mongol Emperor of China, with a great host of Chinese and Koreans, invaded Japan. As with the Spanish Armada off the coast of Britain, the great host was destroyed by a storm, and the island empire of Japan can boast, that no invader has since tried to descend on its shores.

We remember how Marco Polo stayed at the court of Kublai Khan. Naturally, he heard much of Japan, and when he returned to his native country, he was persuaded to write a book about his wonderful travels. In it he introduced Japan to Europe, thereby greatly exciting and interesting his readers. He called it "Cipango," and said it "is a large island towards the east of "Cathay," in the high seas. And a very great island it is. The people are white, civilized, and well favored. They are idolaters, dependent on nobody. And I can tell you," continues Marco, with many more interesting details, "the gold they have is endless, for they find it in their own lands."

In the map used by Columbus, two centuries later, this rich island was drawn large on the east of Asia, with no American continent between it and Europe. As to Korea, very little was known about it in those days.

THE ANCIENT PIRATES OF JAPAN, WHO SAILED THEIR JUNKS TO AMERICA

At those times, when men were reaching out to find each other, and to discover new countries all over the world, there were pirates on every sea. The Japanese were not behind in daring acts, and their junks faced the seas fearlessly, passing to Siam, to India, and even to Mexico.

It was not long after the death of Columbus that the Portuguese found by an eastward route what he had tried in vain to find by sailing westward. From the rich Indies they passed to China, and thence to Japan. Christian missionaries soon followed the traders and explorers. The famous Jesuit, Francis Xavier, managed to get a footing in the southern island of Kiushiu, and conducted, under difficulties, a short but brilliant mission. He says in his letters home that the Japanese "are wonderfully inclined to see all that is good, and have an eagerness to learn."

Towards the end of the fifteenth century, Nagasaki, the chief southern port, with its fine harbor, where the largest Portuguese ships could ride at anchor, became a Christian city. Christian churches were built on the sites of old Buddhist temples; but the progress of the new religion was stopped before long. A great soldier of fortune, Hideyoshi, rose to the highest power. He is often called the Napoleon of Japan, so great were his victories. He invaded Korea, and even planned the invasion of China.

A GENERAL WHOSE DESCENDANTS RULED JAPAN FOR 250 YEARS

His successor, also a great general, overthrew all his rivals, and founded a dynasty of Shoguns that ruled a united Japan in peace for 250 years. To secure this peace, the Catholic missions and the foreign traders were sent away, and the country was closed to all but the Dutch and Chinese, and they alone were allowed to trade at Nagasaki. Some of the most beautiful Japanese work is to be seen at the Hague, gifts from the Mikados of those days. Very little about Japan was known in England during the reigns of the Stuarts and the Hanoverians.

It was in the middle of the last century that there came a great and

wonderful change. Japan had gone on all those peaceful years making improvements in the produce of the country, in the fields, in the tea-gardens, in the hand-looms, in the pottery factories, and in many other arts in which the people are so skilful and tasteful. But discontent was smouldering, and a longing to expand was growing in the hearts of the people.

When the bold Captain Perry arrived with a United States fleet, to insist on pulling down the barriers which had kept Japan away so long from the rest of the world, the old system seemed to fall at a blow. Treaties with various Powers were signed, Yokohama was opened to foreign trade, the Shogun retired, and the Mikado was restored to the full and ancient powers of his office, reigning over the people in fact as well as in name.

JAPAN'S GREAT LEAP FROM THE SLEEP OF CENTURIES INTO THE LIFE OF TODAY

It makes us almost breathless to read of the rapid changes that have taken place in Japan during the last seventy years. Once in contact with the West, there were no half-measures. The old feudal ways were swept away in most dramatic fashion, as Japan leaped out of the Middle Ages into the full stream of modern life with its newest inventions and movements. Japanese came westwards to learn new ways, and received instructors and organizers from the United States and Europe in their own country. Roads were improved and bridges built; railways, telegraphs, telephones, were started all over the country. Banks, warehouses, mills, and factories rose up quickly, law courts were established as well as a constitution, granted in 1889, which gave a House of Commons elected by the people.

Education on modern Western lines has been started everywhere; Western fashions in dress and manners have been largely adopted. An efficient navy and army have been created within a few years. They were needed, for besides all the astounding upheaval and amount of work and expense involved in all the home changes, Japan has had to face two wars with its opposite neighbors. The first, with China, was in 1894 and 1895. Six months decided the contest, Japan being victorious on sea and land. The island of Formosa was added to the Mikado's empire, and the world saw that a new power had arisen to help to shape the destiny of the Far East.

JAPAN'S VICTORIOUS STRUGGLE WITH THE GREAT POWER OF RUSSIA

Japan joined the European Powers in the relief of Peking at the time of the Boxer rebellion, and four years later found herself in the throes of a gigantic contest with Russia. We remember how the Russian troops poured eastwards by the new Siberian Railway, and how awful were the losses and sufferings of the men on both sides. Admiral Togo, often called the Japanese Nelson, destroyed the Russian Navy in the inner part of the Yellow Sea; and on land the successes were equally great.

Every Japanese boy is brought up to believe that the greatest honor that can befall him is to die for his emperor and country if need be, and his body is trained by a wonderful system of resisting gymnastics. His courage is matched by his sense of honor as to the sacredness of his promise and the impossibility of yielding while life lasts, and so it is no wonder that the flag of the Rising Sun was carried triumphantly from start to finish in such strong hands. Japan gained half the island of Sakhalin by this war, and established a sort of protectorate in Korea. It was understood that there would be

a Japanese resident in Korea, that the Japanese citizens would manage the railways, the posts and other matters of importance in the country. But in what has appeared to be a breach of this treaty, the Japanese have actually occupied Korea recently as a Province and it is now become permanently a part of the greater Japanese Empire.

Taking steamer from Nagasaki, we can visit the ancient and interesting country, delightful in spring and autumn, which has for centuries been so connected with both China and Japan. There is a railway from its chief port, Fusan, to the capital, Seoul, which is shut in by a wall and eight gateways, like Peking on a small scale. There are many interesting buildings, a marble pagoda and a bell tower, temples and tombs. The saddest sight is the vast deserted palace—deserted because the Korean empress was killed there.

The Korean people are poor and spiritless, and for long paid tribute to their powerful neighbors to let them alone. The valleys are very fertile, and crops of various kinds are raised. There are large forests and the metals are believed to be very abundant; but there is still much to do in developing the resources of the country.

The Japanese are a very artistic people naturally as is evinced by the remarkable skill they have shown in their various watercolors, embroidery, pottery and enamel ware. It must be said, however, that they have very artistic landscapes and views for the subjects of their work—scenery which has offered inspiration to many a Western painter of recent years.

JAPAN, THE LAND OF DAZZLING BLOSSOMS AND FAIRY LANDSCAPES

Public holidays are set apart for people to go out and admire the fruit-trees in flower, the cherry, and plum, and peach blossoms. Men travel miles to visit the great fields of irises which are most delightful to the eye. Many of our favorite flowers come to us from Japan; but there the purple wistaria hangs in profusion over great trellises, the camellia-trees grow as high as a house, and the masses of convolvulus and azalea form dazzling banks of color. The tall bamboos, so useful as well as ornamental, and high, feathery grasses and stately cryptomeria all help to make up the real fairy landscapes of which we get hints on the screens and fans and embroideries worked and painted by those who live within sight of these beauties of Nature.

We can perhaps match most of the fine mountains and the leaping, foaming waterfalls, the rich plains and valleys and the short rivers that water them, but we have nothing to compare with the mysterious wonder of Fuji-yama, the sacred mountain so deeply beloved by the Japanese and reproduced by hundreds of their artists. It rises, solemn and lonely and grand, in a beautiful cone-like shape nearly three miles above the plain, and it is more than a hundred miles round its base.

FUJI-YAMA, THE FAMOUS JAPANESE MOUNTAIN MORE THAN TWO MILES HIGH

The mountain is near the sea, and not far from the capital of the empire, Tokio. Kipling calls it "the keynote of Japan," so great is its impressiveness as one enters the bay, especially if its top is covered with snow. This melts only in August and September. On its lower slopes is every sort of beautiful vegetation.

It takes many hours to climb it, even with the help of coolies; but what a view from the top! Over fertile plains and glinting water, to mountains beyond. This climb of high into the air gives us an idea of the changes in

TEA HOUSE GIRLS

Typical waitresses of the Tea Houses which form such an important part of Japanese life.

LITTLE JAPANESE GIRL

Little Japanese girl resting from her play. She wears wooden shoes but it is amazing to see the rapidity with which she can run with them.

ASAKUSA PARK, TOKIO

This is one of the larger parks of the great metropolis to which the populace goes for recreation.

vegetation to be seen with a difference in altitude. At the top of the mountain the climate is that of the tundra, or bog-land; below that come the low, stunted trees. Below them we come to pine forests, then the forests of broad-leaved trees, then grassy lands and steppes, then all the crops that grow in warmer regions—barley, beans, peas, tea, cotton and rice.

From the heights of Fuji-yama we can see other important mountains. Most of the Japanese mountains are extinct volcanoes, but Fuji-yama still sends up a little steam, and many earthquakes take place, often causing terrible damage and loss of life. This is one reason why houses are very lightly built in the Mikado's country. Early in 1914 a volcano, Sakura-jima, situated on a little island in the Bay of Kagoshima erupted very violently—the falling ashes and pumice stone affecting the entire island of Kiushiu on which the large seaport of Nagasaki is located. Probably several thousand people were killed and thousands were made homeless, while the violent earthquakes destroyed most of the large buildings in the adjacent towns.

There are a great number of large towns in Japan, several with tens and hundreds of thousands of inhabitants. Tokio, the capital, on the largest island, Nippon, or Honshiu, contains a population of over two millions.

THE SPLENDID TEMPLES AND THE FAIR PALACE IN THE JAPANESE CAPITAL

The temples and tombs of the Shoguns form one of the great sights of this picturesque city, with its avenues of cherry-trees. The Imperial Palace is here, too, with its crystal chambers and beautiful ceilings and brocades. In November thousands of people congregate to see the magnificent chrysanthemum shows. The flowers are much larger and more beautiful than those we are accustomed to see in America. The distances are so long in the large cities that jinrickishas are greatly in request. Coolies or laborers, run them swiftly about, even on the country roads.

Yokohama, the port of Tokio, is the place where most visitors land. Here is the tomb of Yoritomo, the first Shogun. Prior to 1868, when the Shogun gave up his power, the city of Tokio had been known as Edo, or Yedo. It had always been the real capital of the empire, the seat of Shogunal government. For more than fifty years Yokohama has been an important seaport.

The Japanese have a proverb: "Do not use the word magnificent till you have seen Nikko." This is not only a most beautiful town, but it includes a whole mountain district, about 2000 feet above the sea. Cascades and autumn tints and thick vegetation of every kind are among the natural beauties, and there are deeply interesting tombs of Shoguns and saints, and splendid Buddhist temples.

This religious center is located up in the mountains in the middle of a dense forest of cryptomeria. We have none of these trees in the Western hemisphere, but geology tells us that thousands of centuries ago they existed in our country; this has been discovered from the finding of their remains in various deposits in the American continent.

THE HARBOR CITY THAT HAS ALWAYS LINKED JAPAN WITH THE WEST

The island of Kiushiu, on which Nagasaki, with its landlocked harbor and granite docks, is situated, has played a large part in the country's story. Legend has it that from here Jimmu and Jingo set forth on their heroic expeditions. Upon this island the Portuguese traders and mission-

NOGI STREET, YOKOHAMA

A typical street of that great seaport showing the contrast of the modern appearing telegraph poles with the picturesque Japanese buildings.

aries landed, and European civilization was first made known to the Japanese. During the time that Japan was closed Nagasaki was the only port opened to the West.

A GREAT CITY THAT HAS GROWN IN A FEW YEARS FROM A FISHING VILLAGE

Since the door has been flung wide open, Kobe, on the beautiful inland sea, has grown from a fishing village into a large and bright city, where much of the home trade is carried on, and foreign firms are well represented. We can take the train along the lovely shores of this Mediterranean of Japan; or better still pass on our way to Nagasaki in a steamer through the deep, clear, blue water from end to end, passing countless islands and hills clothed in vivid green; and there is ever the living interest of the numerous fishing boats, and curious-looking junks, and the tiny villages hidden in unexpected nooks. For an ocean-going vessel however, this passage is dangerous, for the current is treacherous and the turns sharp. There is practically never a time when there are not two or three wrecks strewn along the banks of this narrow waterway.

Osaka is another manufacturing center near the inland sea, and is renowned for its beautiful temples and fine bazars. It has been called the "Chicago" of Japan, and despite the fact that it has suffered in recent years from two terrible fires, it still holds its place as the chief manufacturing center of the Japanese Archipelago. By Osaka flows the river that drains Lake Biwa, the largest lake in Japan, about the size of Lake Geneva, and, like it, very beautiful. It is a grand

CHARMING SCENES IN JAPAN

Pagoda at Ueno Park in Tokio.

Beneath the Cherry Blossoms at Nikko.

Making a New Year's Call.

A Japanese Family beneath the Wistaria in a Tokio Park.

Photos by courtesy JAPAN (Magazine).

sight on a warm summer night to see the crowds of people enjoying the pleasures of boating, the music on the water, and the dancing light from thousands of lanterns. Refreshments are taken in the tea houses on its shores.

From Osaka we can take the train to Kioto, the old capital of Japan, famous for its wonderful architecture and interesting memories. The Mikado's old palace here covers many acres of ground.

The city is one of the largest in Japan and, cut by the Kamogawa River, it occupies a broad level valley and is situated not far from one of the famous Japanese lakes. It is the ancient capital of the Empire and it is within the memory of the present inhabitants that the government seat has been moved to Tokio.

THE WORKERS IN THE CITIES AND THE WORKERS IN THE FIELDS

In these and other great towns we find many of Japan's millions of inhabitants, both the ruling classes and busy workers. Many are engaged in the fields, for agriculture is actively carried on in Japan, as in China, and occupies many hands. Thousands are employed in the fisheries on the seas, lakes, and rivers, for fish is very plentiful and is one of the chief articles of food. Tall, smoking chimneys are rapidly rising in many industrial centers in Japan, but the work of the greatest beauty, which has influenced so much the taste of the West, has been done from time immemorial by the patient, delicate handwork of men and women who are born artists.

Tea-growing and silk-weaving were introduced from China many hundreds of years ago. Fine porcelain made from abundant supplies of kaolin, a fine white clay, is of world renown; carpets, baskets, beautiful lacquer work which is done on trays and boxes, every variety of fans and lanterns, and endless things for ornament and use are all made in Japan.

Unfortunately we seldom see the more expensive real Japanese articles in the West. We have too often only poor imitations.

HOW WE HAVE COPIED JAPAN'S DRESS AND JAPAN HAS COPIED OURS

Western dress has been adopted at court and in the army and navy, and in many circles; but the kimono, so familiar to us in dressing-gown shape, and in the popular musical opera of the "Mikado," is still the distinctive garment of the country, made in gorgeous embroidered silks and satins for the rich, and in very simple materials for the poor. It is worn with a broad sash, and serves, with the deep kimono sleeves, instead of pockets.

Japanese footwear is quite different from ours. There is a thick white sock, with a division for the great toe, worn with the shoe or clog, which is taken off on entering a house, so as not to soil the mats used as flooring on which people sit, for a Japanese house is very simple, with scarcely any furniture. Often the greater part of the house is made of wood or tough paper, and the partition walls are simply sliding doors. Paper serves for umbrellas and waterproofs, when a cloak made of straw is not available.

The beds are made of thick quilts laid on the floor, with wooden pillows, all being moved away in the daytime. Everything in a Japanese home is most tastefully arranged to give pleasure to the eye, and all is very clean.

THE GOOD TIMES THAT BOYS AND GIRLS HAVE IN JAPAN

Perhaps Japanese children have the happiest time of any children in the

MODERN TRANSPORTATION IN TOKIO

Hauling steel beams. Here we see ox power is still being used.

Photo by JAPAN.

The exterior of Japanese theaters is gaily decorated with flags, lanterns and posters. A restaurant is always an important feature of the establishment, as the play continues from ten in the morning until ten at night.

world. Their fathers and mothers are devoted to them, and train them from babyhood to be self-controlled and polite to everyone; to be gentle in their ways, and to be fond of work. And all this lays the foundation of lifelong happiness. Spoiled, selfish, idle, cross, and miserable children are rarely met with in Japan. They have plenty of lessons and plenty of play. And toys! We all know the delights of Japanese dolls—the children are so like them—and the tops and kites, and wonderful model villages. There are many feast days specially for the children, when all are dressed in their brightest kimonos and sashes, and look as gay as the flowers and butterflies.

The feast of dolls is for the girls, when the "honorable" dolls, so carefully kept from generation to generation, are brought out and displayed, and the little ones have presents of dolls and dainty articles for their use. The boys have their turn on the Feast of Flags, when images of soldiers, heroes, wrestlers are bought for them, as well as helmets, flags, bows and arrows.

Kite-flying and top-spinning done in really scientific fashion are grand pastimes.

The dead are never forgotten in Japan. Every summer the Feast of the Dead is celebrated all over the country, with processions, the carrying of fans and banners, and the tombs are illuminated with beautiful lanterns shedding many-colored lights. The end of the feast at Nagasaki is very striking. After midnight thousands of little ships of straw, carrying small offerings of fruit and money and the lighted lanterns from the tombs, are launched on the waters of the bay. As each little craft catches fire, the soul it is supposed to carry is said to have reached again the Unseen Land.

TEMPLES AND SHRINES AND THE GREAT IMAGE OF BUDDHA

The Japanese visit the temples and shrines very much, and honor thousands of gods. Very often they make pilgrimages to distant shrines. The pilgrim is known by his white kimono and large straw hat. The average tourist in visiting Japan lands at Yokohama. He takes an hour's ride to the village of Kamakura where the most famous "Daibuts" or image of Buddha is located. This image is about 35 feet in height, of bronze about three inches thick, and one can ascend in the interior up into the head where there is a small image and shrine. Tokio is distant only sixteen miles from Yokohama and when it has been visited and a trip made to Nikko, the average traveler turns south, taking the railroad around the foot of the famous Fuji-yama, soon reaching Kioto. From there he travels south for about one hour to Osaka and then further down to Kobe.

One of the most interesting trips in the Land of the Rising Sun is by jinrickisha from Kobe south along the banks of the inland sea, crossing at the end and taking the train to Nagasaki.

The Japanese have sent many students to the United States and to other countries and one finds English spoken on every side making travel comparatively easy.

There are memories that never leave one who has visited Japan—memories of the swiftly whirling jinrickishas, the picturesque little shops, the passing crowds, and the clattering of wooden shoes over the stone pavements—memories distinct and apart from those of any other country.

Often will one's thoughts return and linger with these courteous, cheerful, brave people and their island empire in the East.

A TINGUIAN WEDDING

The girl takes a handful of rice from the dish and drops it between the cracks in the bamboo floor as an offering to the spirits. The boy throws a ball of rice in the air, the way in which it falls indicating whether the marriage will be prosperous. The couple then drink water from the cocoanut-shell and the ceremony is complete.

PHILIPPINE NATIVES AND CUSTOMS

THE Philippine Islands contain perhaps the most confusing admixture of races in the world. The natives, of whom there are more than eighty distinct tribes, are of the Malayan or brown race, the yellow, black and white races, and inhabit an archipelago numbering about three thousand islands.

The aborigines are of negro stock and are still found practicing a primitive form of existence in the interior of the larger islands. They are of short stature and resemble in appearance the typical negro.

The first invaders to disturb the security of the aborigines were Indonesians, who drove the Negritos into the mountains and afterwards intermingled with them. The most interesting tribes of this stock are the Igorots, the Tinguians, the Bagobos and the Mandayas, though there are others of almost equal importance.

To the Indonesians, who came principally from the mainland of Asia on its southeastern extremity, and from Borneo and Sumatra, succeeded the Malays, among whom were certain "Moros" or Mohammedan Malays, now chiefly to be seen in Palawan and Mindanao. In the sixteenth century Spaniards landed on the islands, and large numbers of Chinese crossed over to add to the population a further strain—to a population which was already showing signs that the diversity of races had not precluded an amicable settlement of territory, or even intermarriage between its motley constituents. Thus there may now be found Negrito-Indonesians,

BAGOBO MUSICIANS

The striking costume of the Bagobos is well seen in this illustration. The jackets are embroidered over the shoulders and arms and at the neck and waist, and often have complicated designs in shell disks or beads.

IFUGAO WOMEN

Ifugaoes are divided into a large number of hereditary clans, each of which occupies a definite clan district and has a definite name. They bear a strong resemblance to the Japanese.

A MANOBO OF MINDANAO

The Manobos, whose usual dress consists of short trousers and a shirt, are a war-like people and very expert archers. They live in clans under a headman, and occupy a large part of the island of Mindanao.

A MANGYAN WOMAN

The Mangyans occupy nearly the whole of the interior of the island of Mindoro, and are probably crossed with negro blood. Note the quid of tobacco carried between the lips in order to blacken the teeth.

Malayo-Indonesians, Malayo-Europeans and Malayo-Chinese.

THE NEGRITOS

The first race which possessed the archipelago were the Negritos, who are also known as Aeta. They form one branch of the Eastern as opposed to the African division of the pygmy race.

The men average not over four feet six inches in height and have frizzy hair, a short, flat nose, roundish eyes, an almost black skin and abnormally long arms. Their physique, however, is fine, their chests are broad, their limbs well proportioned and their bodies, as a whole, muscular. By way of ornament they sharpen their teeth and raise great scars on their bodies. The men wear, as a rule, only a breechcloth and the women rarely more than a short skirt to the knees. The latter also adorn themselves with seed necklaces and sometimes beads, curious combs, feathers, flowers in the pierced ears and other similar objects. For special occasions in Palawan the bark garments are often decorated with colored designs, while flowers, brightly-colored leaves and seed necklaces adorn the head and neck.

They build only the rudest shelters, which they desert at pleasure. At times they make small clearings in the jungle and plant rice or sweet potatoes, but a death or other cause for fear is quite sufficient to make them give up their fields and move to other parts. For the greater part of the year they live on the fish and game they can capture, and the roots and other products of the forest.

The Negrito is by instinct and habit a hunter. Indeed, his existence could not be maintained without hunting, upon which, therefore, we find all his ingenuity exercised. Women occasionally take part in hunting, especially if dogs are scarce, and they run through the brushwood with loud cries.

MARRIAGE CUSTOMS

Marriages are arranged with regard to the value of the prospective bride. Good looks and good health in a girl are a valuable asset to her parents, which their would-be son-in-law has to purchase. The transaction is usually carried on by the parents, but a girl is supposed to have some freedom of choice. The custom of exchange of brides also exists: the brother and sister in one family marrying the sister and brother in another and thus avoiding a great deal of expense. Occasionally a boy and girl are betrothed in infancy.

The actual ceremony varies from a somewhat elaborate ritual to a marriage of which there is practically no evidence at all; but a feast which is followed by dancing is generally held. In some districts the man and woman sit in the center of a large circle of relatives and feed each other from a common dish. After the onlookers have acclaimed the action the couple perform some act of service together, such as ministering to the wants of their relatives, typifying union in work as a mark of married life.

After the ceremony the bride and bridegroom spend a few days with the former's parents and then return home. Their return is celebrated by a further gift of presents to the bride, with dancing and with a show of festivity if the bridegroom has sufficient means to warrant such a display. His means also control the number of wives a Negrito may possess. There is no other restriction.

MUSIC AND DANCING FAVORITE AMUSEMENTS

An account of the Negritos, however short, would be imperfect without some mention of their love of music and dancing, which is, of course,

a common Negroid characteristic. Their musical instruments are of a primitive nature being a flute made from bamboo, a jew's-harp and violin of bamboo and rude forms of guitars. Gongs, probably obtained from Malays, are found in some places.

Dancing is the principal amusement, and gives an opportunity for the Negritos to display their exuberant spirits. Besides the ordinary steps, they have mimetic dances showing such things as the gathering of crops or the taking of honey from bees, and episodes relating to love and war.

Among the many tribes that belong to this race may be mentioned the Tinguians, the Igorots, the Bagobos, the Subanuns, the Ifugaos, the Kalingas, the Mangyans, the Manobos and the Ilongots.

The natives who have been converted to Christianity, and who form politically and socially the Filipino people, are composed of the following tribes: the Tagalos, the Visayans, the Ilocanos, the Bicols, the Pangasinanes, the Pampangans and the Cagayanes.

THE TINGUIANS

The people known as Tinguians live in the rugged mountains of northwestern Luzon. For the most part the western slopes of the central mountain chain are bare of forests, but both river valleys and mountain sides are carpeted with rank cogon grass.

The rough nature of the country, together with the lack of forest products and animals, has compelled the people to resort to intensive agriculture in order to make provision for the dry season. When a new field is to be prepared, they go to the mountainside, build a stone wall, behind which they cut away and fill in the soil until they have made a step or terrace. At the back of this plot they raise another wall and again fill in until at last their fields rise step above step far up the mountain sides. Irrigation is provided by diverting a mountain stream into the highest terrace and allowing the water to fall from terrace to terrace until it is completely used up. Sometimes large dams are constructed and the water carried a great distance by aqueducts. The terraces are generally built along a mountain stream, so that the most necessary part of cultivation may be easily effected.

The custom of head hunting has compelled the people of a district to gather into compact villages, which, while at peace with near neighbors, are at war with all others. In this way there have been built up compact agricultural settlements, each of which is ruled by an oligarchy of old men who own allegiance to no tribal chief.

Until recent years dire necessity has made of each man a warrior, while the desire for heads has caused the younger men to make frequent forays against hostile settlements.

For the initial attack the warrior makes use of his spear, but when fighting at close quarters he depends entirely upon his shield, headaxe, and fighting-knife. The shield has three prongs at the top. These he attempts to thrust between the legs of his adversary. Then one blow of the headaxe places the enemy out of the conflict. The two prongs at the other end are used to slip about the neck; one more blow and the victor seizes his trophy and starts for his home.

Following the return of a successful war-party, a great celebration attended with much singing, dancing and drinking of sugar-cane spirit, is held. Dancing is among the Tinguians, as among other uncivilized people, the chief amusement. The best exponents display a great deal of energy and a keen sense of rhythm. Among

TINGUIANS PREPARING A SACRIFICE

After the medium has called the attention of the spirits to the sacrifice which is about to be offered to them, a short time is allowed to elapse to enable them to partake of the repast. The animals are then singed and prepared for food.

SKULLS DECORATING AN IFUGAO HOUSE

Besides the feast in celebration of victory, the Ifugaos make a great occasion of the loss of a head. The funeral of a beheaded body is attended by a vast number of people, and vengeance ceremonies are held on the succeeding days.

BAGOBO MAN

The Bagobo men wear kerchiefs, the edges of which are embroidered with beads and tassels, on their heads. Their dress is the most picturesque in the islands.

MORO MAN

The Moros are Mohammedan Malays and invaded the Philippine Islands shortly before their discovery by the Spaniards. They are found principally in the Sulu Archipelago.

THE WHIPPING CEREMONY AT A TINGUIAN FUNERAL

The funeral generally lasts three days, and during that time the corpse is carefully guarded against injury from the evil spirits. On the morning of the third day each male guest is whipped, so that all may feel as sorry as the family of the dead man.

their musical instruments is the nose-flute, upon which a plaintive tune is played by blowing gently with one nostril, the other nostril being blocked to increase the power. At the conclusion of the war dance, the captured heads are split up into small fragments and a piece is given to each guest, so that he may take it to his home, and thus be constantly reminded of the prowess of the victor.

Tinguian Women

The women of the tribe wear short cotton skirts, which reach from the waist to the knees, and, when not at work, don short-sleeved jackets. Their hair is held in place with strands of beads, while similar ornaments surround their necks, but the most prized decorations are the armbeads. These are placed strand above strand, so that they reach from the wrist to the elbow, and if the wealth of the owner permits, even extend to the shoulder. Those above the wrists are drawn so tightly, that they cause those members to swell, but this is style, so they endure the inconvenience without complaint.

Religion

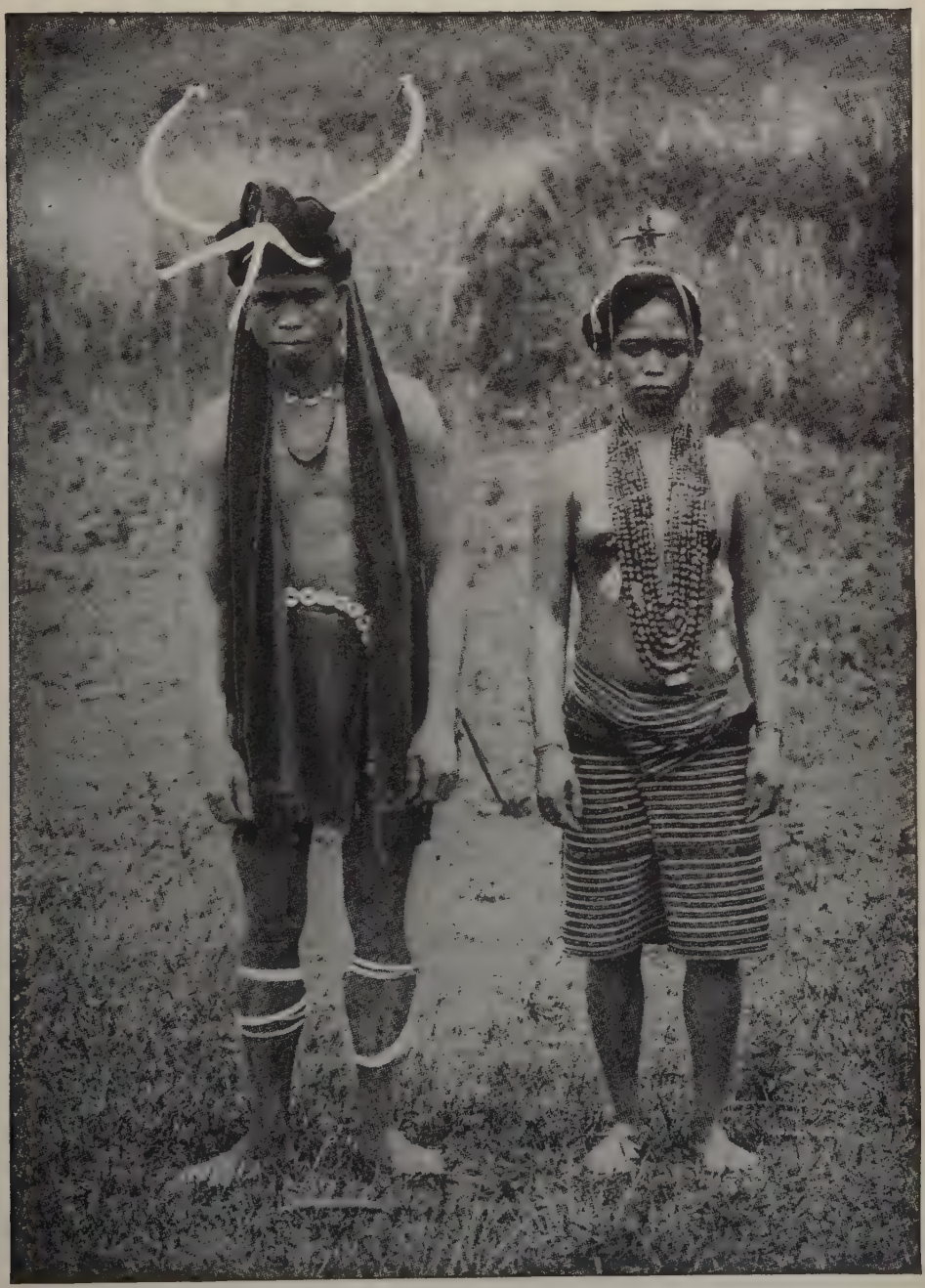
Any attempt to describe the life of the Tinguian must be preceded by at least an outline of his religion, for to him it is very real, and influences every act of his daily life. He believes in a great host of spirits, with whom he talks through the aid of mediums. During ceremonies the bodies of these mediums are possessed by the spirits of superior beings, and then, no longer as humans but as the spirits themselves, they direct what shall be done to bring health and happiness to the people of the village. Before such a ceremony the medium goes to a grove near the village and there makes an offering at the altar to the *pinaing*. These are peculiarly-shaped stones, which are believed to be the abodes of the spirits who guard the village. The heads of the stones are oiled, bark-bands are tied about their necks, and then the blood of a sacrificed pig mixed with rice is scattered before them.

Before an animal is killed it is placed on the ground, betel-nut and lime is laid on it, and then the medium strokes it with oiled fingers, meanwhile bidding the spirits to give attention to the offering which is about to be made. After the spirits have been allowed sufficient time to partake of the repast, the animals are singed and prepared for food.

During these ceremonies spirit-houses are built, and in and about them offerings are made and dances are held. So strong is the faith of the people in the power and interest of the spirit-world that every event of daily life is attended with some manifestations of this belief. Tiny houses are erected in the fields and gardens; ceremonies are held before the new rice can be placed in the granaries; while offerings are made in the houses at times of crisis and epidemics.

Marriage Customs

Marriages are contracted for very young children and a price is then paid for the girl. However, the children do not live together until near the age of puberty. When the time arrives for the final ceremony the groom carries a valuable jar to his parents-in-law, and from that time on he cannot call either of them by name. The girl's parents prepare a dish of rice and a cocoanut-shell of water, and place them on the floor between the couple. The girl takes a handful of rice, squeezes it into a ball and drops it between the cracks in the bamboo floor, as an offering to the spirits. The boy likewise squeezes rice into a ball and tosses it into the air. If it breaks or rolls it is con-



IFUGAOS OF NORTHERN LUZON IN WEDDING DRESS

A feast is the invariable accompaniment of an Ifugao marriage, as it is of all events connected with their life. A large amount of the Ifugao's time is spent in obtaining animals and other requisites for these feasts, which have a religious character.

sidered a sign that the couple may be unfaithful or their children die, but if it remains intact where it has fallen all is favorable. The couple drink of the cold water in the cup and the ceremony proper is complete.

TINGUIAN FUNERALS

A funeral is a great event in a Tinguian village. The dead man is dressed in his best garments and is placed in a sitting position against the wall of the room. Above and about him are blankets and other valuable presents, the ghost souls of which go with the soul of the dead person to his ancestors in *Maglawa*—his future home. The funeral generally lasts three days, and during that time the spouse of the deceased is kept under a white blanket, and both she and the corpse are guarded night and day by the wailers. This is necessary for otherwise evilly-disposed spirits would be sure to injure the body or cause the death of the living.

During the period in which the body remains in the house friends and relatives continue to gather, and by the morning of the third day a considerable number have assembled. At some time during the morning of that day each male guest is beaten—one hundred and fifty strokes each—"in order that all may feel as sorry as the family of the dead man."

Toward nightfall an old woman sits down in front of the body, and covering her face with her hands begins to wail, begging the spirit of the dead man to enter her body. Suddenly she is possessed, and falls back in a faint. For a moment she is left in this condition, then fire and water are brought, the spirit is frightened away and the medium gives the last messages of the deceased to his family.

The body is then buried beneath the house in a grave already occupied by one or more of his ancestors, but for many days the family is under strict taboo, and the grave is constantly guarded to prevent the approach of hostile spirits.

THE IGOROTS

The Igorots live also in Northern Luzon, and may be roughly classified as Bontoc Igorots, Lepanto Igorots and Benguet Igorots, but the name Igorot has been loosely used to include all the head hunting peoples of Luzon, and later became almost synonymous with wild.

The Igorots are a hardy and industrious race of fine physique, and are in color a dark bronze. They have straight black hair, which is cut in a fringe over the forehead.

In the center of each village, which usually contains a population of three or four thousand, is the tribunal where the head man and elders meet to settle disputes and order the affairs of the community. Tattooing is very fashionable, the pattern most common being an arrangement of straight and curved lines, but more ambitious designs are sometimes attempted. Both sexes are fond of personal adornment.

IGOROT MARRIAGES

The unmarried girls of each village sleep in a special "dormitory." The youths also sleep apart from their families, and these arrangements for the segregation of the sexes are zealously maintained by public opinion. Before marriage the boy and girl must obtain the consent of their parents, and they make a trial of married life before the actual ceremony takes place, with feasting and dances. Twins are considered unlucky, but if a neighbor can be found to adopt one of the children no ill results are feared.

The Igorots believe in a supreme god and certain inferior deities, who hold communication with them through the ancestral spirits. These spirits

KALINGA OF NORTHERN LUZON IN GALA DRESS

The Kalingas are a group of the tribes known as Igorots, who are all mountain agriculturists and until lately have been head hunters.

A MANGYAN MAN

An adult man, from Mindoro, looking for a bride. Note the feather on his right arm.

are represented by roughly-carved pieces of wood. Near every village is a sacred tree, in which the ancestral spirits are supposed to live, and rice and other food is put outside the house on little benches for them.

THE SUBANOS

The Subanos are a large tribe, inhabiting the western peninsula of Mindanao, except the coast. The name Subano (river-dwellers) indicates this, being given to the people because they were met with in going up the rivers from the coast, in distinction to the Moros and other tribes, who are coast-dwellers.

The men wear their hair long and dress in a tight jacket and trousers.

The women are fond of ornaments, of which earrings, bangles, necklaces and bamboo combs are the most common.

Both boys and girls go naked for several years after birth, wearing ornaments as charms against evil spirits during this period. Children are not given names till four or five years old. The family sleeps in one hut, there being no dormitories for boys and girls, as are found among some other peoples of these islands.

No original marriage customs

There are no remarkable or original customs connected with marriage, which is arranged by the parents of the bride and bridegroom, on proper settlements being made. The sexes, however, have plenty of opportunity of meeting at the great dancing feasts. No priest is necessary to solemnize the contract, but one is often present to invoke the blessing of the spirits. The essential feature is the symbolical act of the couple feeding each other out of a common rice-dish. The parents-in-law are treated with great respect. Polygamy is permitted, but, as in other places, is a luxury which only the wealthy can afford.

Religion a form of nature worship

The Subanos worship many spirits, among others the Spirits of the Sea, the Earth, the Woods, the Rivers and the Protector of the Sick. Their religion rests on a series of alleged revelations made from time to time to the medicine men or *shamans*.

The chief of these are greatly honored and act principally in four ways: as oracles for the spirits to speak through them, as mediums, when they speak to the spirits and receive an audible reply, as priests, to offer sacrifices and make prayers, and as doctors, to cure illness. At their death they are not buried, but are laid in shelters, as it is supposed they return again to earth.

Rude altars are raised to the spirits, on which are placed rice, chickens, eggs, betel, tobacco, and jars of rice-beer. Small boats containing offerings are also set adrift, perhaps with the idea of conveying away evil influences. Omens of various degrees are accepted, some being of sufficient importance to cancel an engagement or stop a journey, while others only have the power of deferring the operations to which they relate.

The Subanos practice many arts of intercession and propitiation, which fall chiefly under the heads of ceremonies to further agriculture, to obtain good hunting and to guard against ill-luck in house-building.

They frequently hold feasts, and at all erect a platform upon which dancing takes place. The host, who has for some time collected provisions for the occasion, sends out invitations to the neighboring chiefs, who acquaint their followers with the news. The invitations are pieces of rattan, the number of knots in which denote the number of days before the feast is to be held. Each guest daily cuts off a knot from his piece of rattan, and when one knot only remains, he knows that the appointed time is at hand.

Before the feast begins, some friend of the host calls attention to the fines to be paid by anyone who does not observe the necessary decorum.

At those feasts which are held in fulfillment of a vow, conditional on the recovery of a sick person, or in memory of the dead, or for some other devotional object, altars are set up and ceremonies performed by the medicine men. These, however, do not have much effect on the guests, who consider that that side of the entertainment is the medicine man's affair.

The Moros

The Moros, originally inhabitants of the northern coast of Borneo, where

IFUGAO WARRIOR WITH HEAD TROPHIES

Among the independent clans of the Ifugaos the custom of head hunting grew up largely because the possession of a head was necessary before a feast of victory could be given. With the development of the province and the unification of the tribes the practice is becoming obsolete.

they are known as Bajaus or Seagypsies, are Mohammedans of a mixed Malayan strain, with a considerable amount of Arab blood. These people invaded the archipelago under description shortly before its discovery by the Spaniards and occupied the Sulu Islands, in which they are principally found under the names Bajaus and Ilanuns, and their piratical expeditions in the early part of the last century were a constant source of terror to the inhabitants of the neighboring islands.

They are short in stature (about five feet, four inches), muscular, slight and active, with small faces, low foreheads and bright eyes.

They are trained to arms from their earliest years and inherit a contempt for work, which induces them to pursue with vigor their chief occupation other than that of fishing, namely, that of raiding their neighbors, whose goods and women supply their requirements and comforts.

In this pursuit they are fearless, sometimes cruel and untiring, though now their opportunities are few and their activities firmly controlled.

The men dress in shirts, jackets and trousers, bright colored sash and headcloth or kerchief, or a turban which indicates that the wearer has been on a pilgrimage to Mecca. Their garments are generally elaborately embroidered and often are of the richest silks. But their chief care is for their weapons, which are the *barong*, a heavy, short chopper with a razor edge and thick back; the *kris*, the *kampilan*, a two-handled sword, and a lance. These arms are of the finest quality and are sometimes beautifully decorated with carving and inlaid with silver.

THE FAVORITE DWELLING PLACE

A race of sea-robbers, the Moros, as might be expected, prefer to dwell on the coasts, building their houses on piles, so that at a moment's notice they can take to the canoes moored at the very door. As sailors and in swimming they excel.

Their attitude towards their chiefs and religion does not appear to be very clearly defined, and is perhaps regulated more by chance and circumstances than by any system of order and thought.

The Sultan of Sulu is nominally ruler of all the Moros, but in outlying islands his authority is not always recognized by those who are supposed to hold under him subordinate positions of trust.

In each village there is a *datu* or *pangiran* by whom the social direction of the people is undertaken.

Their spiritual welfare is in the hands of priests, who are, in turn, subject to higher dignitaries (*serifs*), Arabs, but the religion of the Moro is not strongly developed and is most in evidence when, from distaste of life or in pursuance of a vow, he runs amuck and kills as many heretics as he can before his own life pays the penalty of his enthusiasm.

Their mosques are ill-kept, their fasts irregularly observed, and the abstinences enjoined by their religion neglected if evasion seems likely to escape notice.

The Moro man does not appear to find much amusement in dancing, though a kind of dance (*mincha*) is performed by young men armed with a sword or stick. The women, however, invariably dance at marriages and other occasions of importance, posturing with movements of the arms, wrists and hands. Most of the movement is above the waist, and the feet are hardly used at all.

Cormorants are splendid catchers of fish, and are frequently employed by fishermen in the east and center of China. The birds are prevented from swallowing the fish by an ingenious contrivance fastened round their necks.

THE CHINESE REPUBLIC

THE OLDEST LIVING NATION IN THE WORLD

THE dominions which owe fealty to the Republic of China cover one quarter of Asia, from the Pamirs to the Pacific, and from Siberia to India. The mysterious and wonderful mother country, China proper, lies between its great dependent states of Manchuria, Mongolia, Tibet, and Turkestan, and the Pacific Ocean. In size China proper is about half the size of the United States, and its face is crossed by the outlying eastward ranges of mountains running from the great central heights, and by the immense rivers fed by the snows of Tibet, and joining by a network of streams on their long journey to the ocean.

It is estimated that over 300,000,000 people live in China, in its great cities and fertile plains, and on the banks of its waterways.

We always think of China as "topsy-turvy" land and indeed many of its customs seem to be the very opposite of ours in this Western Hemisphere. We reckon from the North—they from the South. Their ladies ride in wheelbarrows while their cattle are carried in carriages. They put their family names first, and given names second. For example, Theodore Roosevelt would be Roosevelt Theodore in China. They always mount horse on the right side and at dinner the left side of the host is the honored one, while they show respect by keeping on their hats. Their boats chiefly are drawn by men, while they attach sails to their carriages. Many of their customs and habits appear to us as ludicrous and grotesque.

Among the treasures found in many homes of America are curiosities brought by travelers and relations from this wonderland of the Far East, such as delicate embroideries in shining silks of gorgeous colors, dainty carvings in ivory, and exquisite little bits of fine porcelain or china. And as we have looked closely at the regular stitches in the beautiful fabric we have seen that there is no untidy "wrong side" in Chinese work. We have wondered at the seemingly impossible puzzle of the ivory balls

carved one inside the other, or at the unusual patterns on the thin little cups, and we have tried to picture to ourselves the far country whence the treasures came, and the patient and skilled workers who made them. Perhaps all that we have succeeded in calling before our minds are the pigtails of the Chinese men, and the tiny feet of Chinese women, upon a misty background of an unknown land of flowers, with gracefully curved buildings and willow-pattern plate landscapes.

If we have gone to our map of China for help, very possibly we have been dismayed and discouraged by the great number of difficult names upon it, and queer ones indeed they seem to us, in a language so absolutely different from our own. So perhaps it will help us in our quest of a closer view of China and its people to learn a few words of Chinese first, and then, at any rate, we shall understand what some of the names mean, which will give us a much better chance of remembering them,difficult as they are.

In this veritable Land of Mighty Streams, ho, kiang, and kong, all mean river; chan, or shan, and ling, stand for the mountains between which the rivers run, or through which, in some parts, they force a way between mighty gorges; pe, nan, tong, or tung, and si, indicate the points of the compass, north, south, east, and west; hoang, or hwang, is yellow, the imperial color of China; pei, is white; fu, or foo, and king, mean town or court; hai, the sea; chian, heaven, and so on.

Knowing a few words like these, we can easily find the mountains of the east, north, and south: Shan-tung, and the Pe-ling and Nan-ling ranges. The two last shut in the basin of China's greatest and most important river, the Yang-tse-kiang. Over 3000 miles lie between its sources in the heights of Tibet and its mouth in the Pacific Ocean. It makes a magnificent waterway into the heart of the country, wide and deep enough for steamers to ply for a thousand miles through the rich plains of Central China, which the river itself has done much to form, by bringing down fertile mud, as the Nile does along its banks in Egypt.

THE RIVER OF CHINA'S SORROW AND THE TERROR OF ITS FLOODS

In its upper courses, separated from the lower by grand gorges which remind us of the Iron Gate on the Danube, it passes through a rich district of red earth—as large as England and very thickly peopled. There are lakes in the basin of the Yang-tse-kiang which act as reservoirs in the time of heavy rains, so that its floods are not so disastrous as those on the Hwang-ho, or Yellow River, which drains through Northern China. "China's Sorrow" is one of the names of the latter river, so dreadful are the floods when it bursts its banks and submerges the surrounding country and towns. It is not navigable for long distances, like the Yang-tse-kiang, but on its banks, and in caves in its cliffs, live many of China's millions.

This famous Yellow River and also the Yellow Sea into which it empties get their color from a peculiar kind of earth called "loess" through which the river passes far inland. This loess is really dust which was blown into large dunes thousands of years ago when the ice which had covered China melted and left the bare soil a prey to the winds.

So here we have a yellow land with a yellow river, cutting its way through the soft soil, making deep cliffs on each side, and carrying its thick, yellow, sandy waters onwards, until they pour by ever-changing mouths

into a yellow sea. One of the titles of the great Emperor of China was "Lord of the Yellow Land."

THE WONDERFUL YELLOW SOIL THAT GROWS SEVERAL CROPS A YEAR

The yellow basin of North China is even more fertile than the red basin of Central China, several valuable crops being raised in a year on this "loess" soil.

The Si-kiang, or West River, drains Southern China, rising in the eastern spurs of the Tibetan heights, and making its way through tropical forests, past mountains with treasures of every sort of mineral, and fields with crops that require a hot and moist climate. It is from Southern China principally that so many Chinese emigrate to find work in different parts of the coast of the wide Pacific.

We have often imagined the hum that rises from busy districts and towns in other countries, but from China—from that vast hive of human industry between the solemn, silent central mountains and the deep, wide sea—it seems as if there must be one continuous and mighty buzz from the whole country, so close are the great cities, so many are the millions of people living and working on the fertile plains.

And this buzz of multitudes is no new thing, as it is in our own country, where great industrial centers are scarcely a century old; neither is it caused, as it is with us, by the whirl and thump of machinery and the noise of the iron horse on his journeys to every corner of the land. Railways and machinery are, comparatively speaking, only just starting in China, the oldest living nation in the world.

THE LAND OF ETERNAL SAMENESS WHERE CUSTOMS NEVER CHANGE

For thousands of years her people have been steadily working, growing in numbers and changing rulers, suffering the horrors of war and enjoying the blessings of peace, but always busy in the same old ways, making the same things, cultivating the ground on the same methods for centuries, learning the same lessons in the same language, and competing in the same examinations to fill the same government posts.

It is difficult for us who are all for progress and new ideas, and dislike standing still, to understand this steady keeping to old ways. Two thousand years ago most of our ancestors were still in the wilds of Europe—very rough persons, who would find us, their descendants, very much changed in language, manners, and dress from themselves.

Now, the written history of China goes back for 4000 years, more than twice as long as ours, so that when Europe was just beginning to make for civilized ways and thoughts, the Chinese nation was as old as we are now. But she lost the advantage of her start of 2000 years by standing still, going to sleep, and keeping to herself for centuries while the young Western nations were forging ahead, developing governments and education and inventions.

THE LONG SLEEP OF THE CHINESE PEOPLE AND THEIR HATRED OF NEW IDEAS

There are many reasons that account for the long sleep. We will only speak of two that will help us to understand the history of this country, so unlike our own. One is that the Chinese have always greatly revered their parents and ancestors, going so far as to make it a first duty to carry on the work of life in exactly the same way that their forefathers had handed down.

Another reason is that, with few exceptions, the Chinese have stayed at home within the limits of their own

NATIVE INDUSTRIES OF THE CHINESE

Agricultural implements in China are primitive, the rude wooden plow being a case in point.

In the province of Kwang Tung irrigation is often effected by an arrangement of bucket and ropes.

Besides the bucket method of irrigation, a kind of wheel is used to raise the water to the ditches.

When boring a hole with his bow-drill, the Chinese carpenter holds the wood with his foot.

Chinese blacksmith shop. The man at the left is scraping a piece of iron.

The coffin maker's establishment is worth a visit, if only to see the curious shapes of the caskets.

Not far from the walled city of Yeung Kong is this factory for the production of incense.

Chinese bricklayers at work. The bricks used are several inches longer than those in America.

country. Then, as they also seldom encouraged foreigners to visit them—indeed, they rigidly kept them out, as a rule—no new ideas of progress and reform, no new knowledge of outside discoveries and inventions, could penetrate the wall of reserve that shut in their heavenly, or celestial, kingdom, so superior, as they believed, to the rest of the earth. And, as time went on, they hated anything new or foreign more and more. But that is changing now.

Some say that ages ago the ancestors of the Chinese came from the Tarim basin and settled on the yellow loess-beds, where it was so easy to grow food.

Anyway, here they lived, advancing in civilization for long, long years, before they spread across the forest-covered mountain ranges which separate the basin of the Yellow River from that of the Yang-tse-kiang. Here too, the tribes flourished and grew, and in time united under one ruler; the government became more settled and all sorts of arts developed, such as the cultivating of silkworms and the weaving of silk. This has ever been one of China's greatest and most profitable industries.

CONFUCIUS, THE GREAT TEACHER WHOSE WORDS ARE LAW TO MILLIONS OF MEN

About twenty-six centuries ago a great teacher and leader arose, named Confucius, who, during his wandering and hard life, tried to find out how best a man could do his duty to his neighbor, and how best he could learn to govern himself. His teachings have been law to countless millions of his fellow-countrymen, his temples are found all over China, and his books have been the foundation of all learning through the centuries—for Confucius collected and set in order the history of the nation, and inspired a great many books in which his teaching is set forth.

His teachings constitute a sort of religion which has some fine points. Its greatest defect however has been that it has made the Chinese always look backward for perfection instead of forward. It taught the Chinese to honor and revere their ancestors, even to the point of never trying to advance or to improve on the old methods of doing things. It taught them to copy perfectly past achievements, but never to think out anything new for themselves.

The Chinese are the most laboriously learned people in the world but they have not advanced a bit or invented anything for three thousand years when even at that time they had gunpowder, the mariner's compass, and the art of printing.

Confucius is to blame for this just as much as he is to be honored for teaching them morality.

Some further account of Confucius will be found under the caption "Some Founders of Religions" in these books.

A few hundred years after his death, a prince of China reigned who ordered a great burning of the books of Confucius, and cruelly treated those who tried to keep them. One punishment was to send them to labor on a great wall that he was building, right across the north of China, to keep out the Mongolian horsemen, who were forever descending on his country. Thirty feet high, fifteen feet wide at the top, faced with granite, with many towers of defence, this wonderful wall runs over hill and valley, across sand and river, up the face of the rocks, for 1500 miles along the north border line of China. This wall still divides China from Mongolia; but it did not keep the Mongols out, any more than the Roman wall across Britain kept out the Picts and Scots.

THE GREAT SILENT DESERT WHERE CHINA'S GREAT WALL LIES BURIED

The last explorer to return from Central Asia is Dr. Stein, and the discoveries he made there are of importance and interest in connection with this great wall.

For miles and miles, as far as the eye can see in the basin of the Tarim River, there stretches sand, nothing but dry, parched sand, that has fought and conquered mankind, overwhelming towns and villages, and sweeping away a flourishing civilization. Of life there is practically no trace. Men have fled before those advancing grains of sand, that they were powerless to check; animals have died. Only one or two plants are able to exist in those desolate wastes. It is a land of sand—and silence.

In these awful wastes, beneath the numerous sand-dunes, Dr. Stein made some interesting discoveries. He found that the Great Wall of China, which hitherto was thought to end at the foot of the Nan-Shan Mountains, does not end there at all. Far away to the west in the Tunghwan Desert he found the remains of a great wall, with watch-towers at intervals of two or three miles, that practically joins the wall at the foot of the Nan-Shan Mountains.

This, he believes, is the true Great Wall of China, and the wall which we have always looked upon as the great wall is, apparently, much more modern.

THE HISTORY OF A RACE THAT IS BURIED UNDER THE SAND OF CENTURIES

There, from those silent and deserted houses and watch-towers, Dr. Stein has excavated that terrible sand, little by little, and his labor has been well repaid. Wooden slabs, with carefully wrought symbols and clay seals, private letters, official documents, frail materials of cotton and silk, and ancient paper, have all been recovered from the sand under which they have lain for many centuries, and these documents, when translated, may give us a history of the long-vanished race which once occupied the land that is now a great sandy waste, where life is insupportable.

We can imagine with what fears these ancient people saw the sand creeping nearer and nearer; how they battled with it valiantly, and tried to keep it from their homes; and how, at length, the sand slowly crept up to the houses and cottages, and into the rooms, driving the inhabitants forth, and gradually covering the entire place in a thick layer. But although the sand has destroyed, it has also preserved, and the relics which have been found will throw much light upon those ancient and deeply interesting times. More than a hundred years before the birth of Christ regular trade was opened up with Central Asia by China, and caravans began to wind along the routes from one oasis to another across the deserts, through the passes of Mongolia and Turkestan, carrying goods for trade by the infinite labor of men and dumb animals.

THE GOLDEN AGE OF CHINA WHEN TEMPLES WERE BUILT AND BOOKS WERE PRINTED

Later, the country suffered from many disturbances and divisions, and the struggles among several small rulers to be first and foremost. It was during these centuries, about the time when the Angles and Saxons were seeking their new homes across the North Sea, that the Buddhist religion took hold in China, though it had been introduced from India some centuries before. The story is told that about the time of the birth of Christ the Emperor of China had a dream telling him that a prophet was born in the west. He then sent a great embassy

overland to find this prophet and bring back his religion to China. After much traveling his ambassadors arrived in India where they found Buddhism. Thinking this religion to be the one of which they were sent in search they returned taking back with them this Indian teaching, introducing it into China about 35 years after the birth of Christ. Temples were built all over the country, to house the thousands of images that were brought by the priests and monks.

The three centuries after this are considered by the Chinese as one of the most glorious periods in their long history. Books and authors, schools and colleges, examinations and degrees, occupied a great place in public life. While Alfred of England (p. 78) was setting scholars laboriously to work with their pens and paint-brushes to copy manuscripts, Chinese records mention the printing of books by wooden blocks. About this time, too, an immense encyclopædia was written. The fame of this learning and of the gorgeous palaces and riches of China was spread to Europe, chiefly by Arab traders, and ever since the romance and mystery of China has attracted the imagination and longing of the West.

How the door was opened for Europe to get its first peep of China

But it was not till the thirteenth century that the Venetian, the most famous traveler the world has ever known, Marco Polo opened the door for Europe to get a passing view of the wonders of the dim and mysterious land of the Far East.

Early in that century the Mongols had gradually been getting more and more power on the borders of Central Asia and in the north of China. When the great leader Jenghiz Khan, the "Greatest of the Great," flashed over Western Asia and ruled over a country stretching from the China Sea to Russia, some of the barriers that had hitherto prevented entry into China were swept away. The huge empire was divided at his death among his sons, and a good deal of intercourse followed between China and Persia, Tibet and Mongolia.

The great Mongol emperor who made Peking his capital

It was the grandson of Jenghiz Kahn, Kublai Khan, who welcomed Marco Polo so kindly to China, and sent him on so many missions to the wild provinces on the borders of Tibet and other distant parts of the country. Deeply interesting is the account of Kublai's reign by Marco Polo, as well as the writings of other travelers who seized the opportunity of exploring the heights of the Pamirs and the Tarim basin; and some even crossed the Hwang-ho into China itself.

Kublai added Southern China to his dominions, and made his new capital at Peking, the Court of the North. This great soldier proved equally great as a ruler, for he encouraged education and helped China in many ways.

His grandson, Timur (not to be confused with the famous Timur, or Tamerlane, who lived a hundred years later) followed him as ruler. After his death, rebellions and murders of emperors, great misgovernment, and other troubles brought the rule of the Mongols to an end. In the fifteenth century the Chinese drove them across the Great Wall to the Altai Mountains, and Mongolia became a province under the Chinese Ming family, or dynasty, of emperors, which lasted nearly 300 years. There were troubles at home and abroad during this time, difficulties with the Mongols and the Manchus, and most important of all, the door which hid the Celestials from

the Western "barbarians" began to open just a little. The Portuguese and Spaniards appeared in China in the sixteenth century.

A WONDERFUL CHINESE ENCYCLOPEDIA IN THOUSANDS OF VOLUMES

Very beautiful porcelain was made during the Ming dynasty, and another large encyclopædia was brought out, which occupied many editors and assistants for several years. It is said that this is the largest encyclopædia in the world. It runs to many thousands of volumes, and a copy is now to be seen in the National Museum at Washington. The Portuguese traders made but little impression on China, settling at Macao, near Hong Kong, but the Jesuit missionaries managed to make their way inland in China to preach the Christian religion.

There are many splendid remains of the great Ming dynasty in China, especially near Peking. Among them is a long avenue of large stone animals in various postures, leading to the wonderful tombs of the emperors. There are also many magnificent memorial archways.

As the Ming dynasty was nearing its end, the Manchus, who were kinsmen of the Mongols, settled in Manchuria, about the River Amur, and made increasingly successful attacks on the empire till, in 1616, the Manchu line of rulers found themselves firmly seated on the throne, beyond the great wall that was built centuries before to keep out invaders. China was ruled by emperors of the Manchu dynasty until 1912, when they were forced to withdraw and a republic was established.

THE GREAT STRUGGLE OF THE NATIONS OF EUROPE TO SET FOOT IN CHINA

The last seventy years have seen a grim and never-ending game of the "King of the Castle" going on between China and the Western Powers that are so anxious to gain footholds in her rich and ancient country. The chief object for which these footholds were desired was to force the Christian religion and Western ideas upon a country which detested them, and to open up trade with people who had so much to sell, and whose great numbers mean great buying power.

Little by little China has been forced to give way, and she has had to admit, one by one, her assailants into some part of the enchanted "Castle." Portuguese, Dutch, Germans, Russians, and British for years carried on the struggle, and after wars and sieges and stormings, and endless discussion of a more peaceful nature, the various foreign nations at last have gained the right of entry into the land so long closed to them.

It was in 1842 that, by the Treaty of Nanking, certain treaty ports were opened to foreign trading ships, and as time went on more and more concessions had to be given to the foreigners; concessions and money were often exacted as a punishment for killing missionaries or other representatives and burning their property. Shortly after the settlement of Nanking, a terrible rebellion devastated a large part of China for fifteen years.

THE FIRST TROUBLED YEARS OF CHINA'S AWAKENING

These first years of China's awakening after the long sleep of centuries, have indeed been full of trouble and pain. There have been almost incessant wars with the neighbors who could no longer be kept out, with Russia, France, Germany, Japan, and during these wars China has learned by sad experience that her old ways of warfare, though picturesque in their setting, and almost sacred from long custom, were useless against those of her opponents. Now Chinese troops are drilled by Western methods.

THE BOXER RISING AND THE FLIGHT OF THE EMPEROR FROM PEKING

Naturally there has been much feeling against all the new ideas in this most conservative country in the world; the first railways were torn up as soon as laid; telegraphs were bitterly opposed, and Christian missionaries always carried their lives in their hands. So greatly have they been hated, in spite of the ability and devotion they have shown, especially in organizing relief in times of dreadful famine and plague, that in 1900 a great rising, called the Boxer rising, took place against the missionaries at first, but eventually all the hated foreigners were attacked. For two terrible months the European residents in China were in great danger. Many were killed, and others suffered all the terrors of a siege. They were shut up in Peking, with a howling mob eager for their lives outside, till relief came, and the Boxers were driven away. The allied forces made their way to Peking, and the emperor and his aunt fled far westward for safety, till peace was settled and justice done.

The efforts of missionaries in China have been sadly hampered by the actions of traders of their own faith, by their want of principle, and by the bad example that many of them have set. Great wrong has been done in the past by Englishmen in furnishing, for the sake of money, arms and help to the rebels who were devastating China when General Gordon came to the rescue, and by their insisting on sending into China the poisonous drug opium, against the wishes of the rulers; this also for the sake of gain.

The smoking of opium has quite as bad an effect on people as taking too much strong drink—it destroys them body and mind, and it has been a terrible curse to China. However, with the recent awakening of China, they have seen what a bad effect this opium had on them and have abolished it absolutely, even fining heavily any one they found possessing an opium pipe.

THE SIGHTS OF THE CITY IN WHICH THE GREAT EMPEROR OF CHINA ONCE LIVED

Foreigners have now gained more than a mere foothold on the shores of China. It is comparatively easy for them to pass from end to end of the beautiful and wonderful country. Many travelers have already done so, and they have shown us, by words and photographs, the marvels of this long shut-up land. Let us too, pass in.

There are three main ways of reaching China. We can go to Europe, thence by the Siberian Railway, branching off through Manchuria, and crossing the Great Wall to Peking; or we can travel to the East by going westwards—that is, by train across the mighty continent to the Pacific, where steamers take us across to its other side; or across the Atlantic by steamer, through the Suez Canal, to any chosen port.

All are most delightful and interesting journeys. Let us start at the "Court of the North." Peking contains at least a million inhabitants, and is near the Pei-ho River, near the mouth of which is a port, Tientsin. Peking is really made up of two cities, the outside Chinese city, where business is done, and the inside, or Manchu Tartar town, where the foreign embassies are.

The emperor held his great court in an inclosure full of splendid buildings in the center of the Tartar city. To this famous Forbidden City very few foreigners ever gained admission.

Grand, indeed, were the pageants to be seen when the emperor visited the Temple of Heaven to pray for a good harvest, leaving upon the mind a

dazzling blur of golden yellow—the imperial color of the Lord of the Yellow Land—of brilliant touches of blue, green, and crimson, as the trains of high officials in gorgeous array passed on in the procession. Long were the ceremonies, bowings, and prostrations, endless the prayers and readings from silken scrolls, as the incense floated towards heaven from bronze censers.

In China men seem to go on being examined all their lives, chiefly in order to obtain appointments. Our system of education is now entering into China and rapidly replacing the old.

Under their old system every government employe had to take an examination of which there were three grades, the highest being given only at Peking. They were examined chiefly on literature and philosophy. Mathematics was left out absolutely so that they could not do even a simple example of arithmetic without using a machine called the "abacus."

In taking these examinations, the candidates were given a subject for an essay, and then with food they were shut in a cell until they finished the composition, sometimes remaining for twenty-four hours.

In Peking are the imperial factories where the beautiful silks and china were made for the emperor to give as presents, and many splendid buildings, temples, tombs, palaces, and fairy-like gardens, stand out in striking contrast with the dirt and poverty everywhere to be seen. The dust—yellow dust—is dreadful in Peking, and penetrates into palace and hovel alike.

There are railways now being rapidly developed in many directions, especially in the rich delta plain of China, connecting the chief ports, and running far inland. Steamers, too, ply on the network of rivers and canals, besides the old-fashioned boats with square sails called junks, so familiar in Chinese pictures. Where the shifting bed of the Hwang-ho has to be crossed, the bridges are some of the longest in the world.

Shanghai is at the mouth of the Yang-tse River, and is the chief trade center of North China. Here we find rows of European houses and shops, with their names hanging downwards, instead of across a signboard; and the public gardens are full of most glorious flowers. Crowds of people, European and Chinese, rich and poor, throng the streets, and factories with smoky chimneys remind us of the new ways that have begun to replace the old.

Nanking—the "Court of the South"—is also a very important place on the Yang-tse River, and higher up still is Hankow, a great place for the tea trade. The porters waiting about for work on the tea steamers make us think of our dock laborers at home.

From Hankow it is still some distance to the wonderful Yang-tse gorges, a thousand miles up the river from Shanghai. The high precipices, and towers of rocks and pinnacles, all of most fantastic or massive shapes, are relieved by the lovely trees and shrubs, and a profusion of flowers all growing wild: such as larkspur, jasmine, white lilies, sunflowers, and many others that we grow in American gardens and hothouses.

It is exciting work putting the boats on the rapids, and communication between the two ends of this difficult part of the river has been improved.

The rich province of Szechuen—as large as France—is watered by the upper Yang-tse River, and is full of mountain and water beauty, as well as great, rich crops of all kinds. There is also an abundance of mineral wealth which adds to the material prosperity.

IN OLD SHANGHAI—THE WILLOW PATTERN TEA HOUSE

This building has been copied (as a design on chinaware) more than any building in the world. It is situated in the center of the ancient city in the middle of a pond and approached by a very crooked bridge called the Bridge of the Evil Spirits because it is supposed to be so crooked that no Evil Spi it can cross it.

FLOWER BOATS ON THE CANTON RIVER

It is estimated that some 150,000 individuals live continually on boats in the streams and canals adjacent to Canton. It is a case of a city overflowing a river. The houseboats serve as places of amusement, restaurants and for music.

There are many wonderful Buddhist temples and monasteries all over the country, often on mountains that are most difficult to climb. Pilgrims visit the shrines of saints, as in Tibet and India; and prayer-wheels, and ringing of bells, and grand ceremonials, with reverence of the lamas (priests), show how widespread is the ancient religion

THE GREAT CHINESE PORT OF HONG KONG THAT BELONGS TO BRITAIN

Hong Kong is an island having an area of about 30 square miles at the mouth of the Si-kiang, or West River, and it belongs to the British. It is now the largest seaport in the world, though it was a bare rock little more than fifty years ago. Macao, founded centuries ago by the Portuguese, just across the river remains now only in name. Victoria, its capital, has a splendid harbor, and on its long quays, and in and out of its hive-like warehouses, thousands of Chinese work, dealing with the immense stacks of goods—silk and tea, cotton and woolen goods, coal, and many kinds of food—which all pass through this great port overlooked by hills.

Canton—the City of Perfection—is also on the West River, and for long it was the only port open to Europeans. It lies about 90 miles from the sea, on low flat land intersected by numerous canals and streams. We heard before of the Yellow River overflowing the surrounding country but here the city itself of Canton has overflowed the river. About 400,000 people live in little boats, fastened one to another, boats which were never built to move, but to remain fastened to the banks, to serve as houses for the poor families who could not afford to buy land on shore. Canton is the metropolis of Southern China.

THE CRUEL CUSTOM OF CRUSHING AND PRESSING THE FEET OF CHINESE GIRLS

The very poor have a hard time in China, and among them baby girls are

Two types. The dirty but well-fed beggar of the streets and a Chinese woman in her tea garden.

seldom welcomed, though every Chinaman is thankful and glad to have sons to carry on the customs connected with the worship of ancestors that alone can help them as they believe to happiness in a future life. It is one of the sights of China to see a family party setting off to the cemeteries on their great festival days, to honor, with gifts and feasting and enjoyment, the relations who have become "guests on high."

Formerly, little girls had a sad time of it, though now matters are slowly improving for them. Married when very young to a husband she had perhaps never seen, the custom has long been that the little Chinese bride should go to live in her mother-in-law's house, and become a mere drudge. And this was not the worst of it.

Centuries ago lived a princess whose feet were deformed and then the Chinese began binding with tight bands the feet of the baby girls so that when they were grown up their feet would be like the princess'. Year by year as the girls grew older the bands were tightened until at last the toes

TWO VIEWS OF THE CHINESE AT HOME

An Oriental Restaurant of the lower class showing Chinese laborers and coolies taking a little refreshment in the form of a bowl of pork-meat and gravy, a cup of tea and a pinch of rice.

The Chinese are the most learned people in the world although very impractical in the selection of knowledge. A Chinese school is different from ours in that they seem to vie with each other in making noise.

were crushed out of shape right under the foot, which was pressed into a tiny shoe much too small for the foot of a healthy baby of a year old.

We are filled with horror when we think of what the sad-eyed little Chinese girls went through to get little feet. Formerly, no Chinese girl could expect to be married unless she had small feet, and so, century after century, the cruel practice was carried on.

A WOMAN'S CUSTOM AND A MAN'S CUSTOM CHANGED BY OBSERVING FOREIGNERS

Since 1880 this horrible custom of binding the feet has been stopped by order of the emperor and for this blessing the efforts of foreign missionaries are the cause.

The same has been the story of the "pigtail." When the Manchus conquered China they made the Chinese leave their hair long as a badge of servitude and to distinguish them from their masters. This was centuries ago and slowly this peculiarity of appearance changed for the Chinese from a badge of inferiority to a source of great pride so that every boy was as proud of his pigtail as our American boys are of their first pair of long trousers. This custom, however, is a thing of the past and with the founding of the republic an order was issued to cut all pigtails. This reform came along with the many others recently introduced.

CHINA WILL BE A FUTURE POWER UNDER THE INFLUENCE OF WESTERN CIVILIZATION AND INFLUENCE

Think of what a wonderful stability this civilization of China has been! China is the only country which through scores of centuries has remained intact in all its customs and institutions. It has outlasted all others. Ancient Egypt rose and fell. The kingdom of Babylon, the empire of Persia, Greece, Rome—all have come and gone while China has remained exactly the same through it all.

Now, however, within a space of fifty years all has been greatly changed and a remarkable revolution in ideas has come. China saw more of us Westerners and admired our ways of doing things. Many of her young men came to our country and studied, and then went back home filled with great ideas for the improvement of their country. What was the result! They abolished the empire and founded a republic patterned after the United States of America. They are very inexperienced, of course, in running a real government and so are really just "going to school" at it. We must accordingly be patient with them in the mistakes they make, and remember that it is impossible in fifty years to change absolutely a nation which has done everything and thought every thought in precisely the same way for four thousand years and more.

THE RIVER JORDAN

The Jordan is a somewhat turbid stream lined on both sides quite extensively with willow trees

THE HOMELAND OF JESUS

LIFE IN THE HOLY LAND IN STORY AND PICTURE

IT is daybreak, the seventh we have seen on the Mediterranean since we left Marseilles on our way eastward. We can just make out, in the dazzling glory of the sun's rays, the faint outline of the country we have come to see.

It is a little country, one-half the size of West Virginia, but there is much to see in it, so long is its story, thousands of years long, so full is its story, full of the most unforgetable things that have ever happened in the world.

There is no spot in the world which is universally so revered as Palestine. Jerusalem is holy to the Mohammedans next to Mecca. It is holy to the Jews above all other places, and also to the Christians, for its connection with the life of Christ. Its history, and especially that of Jerusalem, is filled with the important features found in the history of these three religions.

Our landing-place is Jaffa, and here we get our first view of an Eastern town. Such a confusion of strange-looking faces and costumes; camels striding along the streets; numbers of donkeys and their boys; mean-looking houses, much dirt, and many beggars—all this passes before our dazzled eyes as we make for the railway station, crossing one of the most ancient roads in the world, by the sea-plain, leading from the Nile to the upper part of the Euphrates.

We have a three hours' journey before us, though the distance is only as far as from Chicago to Joliet. First through orange and lemon groves—where grow the famous Jaffa oranges, then across a plain famous through the ages for the beauty of its wild flowers, then winding among low hills, past shepherd boys with their sheep and goats, past mud villages set in fields of yellow, brown, and green. The train begins to mount as the trains do up the heights of Switzerland, and from the open platform we enjoy the growing grandeur of the view, backwards over the Mediterranean, forward

to the heights above, as we climb to the great central ridge that forms the heart of Palestine.

Soon our train runs into the terminus and amid the bustle of porters and luggage, and finding a carriage to take us to our hotel, we look up and read on the station wall JERUSALEM.

As we leave the train it is hard to imagine that at last we have arrived at the Holy City. All that we see about us are stone walls and barren fields; there is nothing of particular interest.

We take a carriage and drive about one mile over a winding road finally crossing a little valley near a large pool of water, and we approach the Joppa Gate, severe and forbidding appearing. This gate occupies the position of Herod's palace and castle, and in fact, the large tower which we see before us is a part of his tower called Hippicus in the Bible.

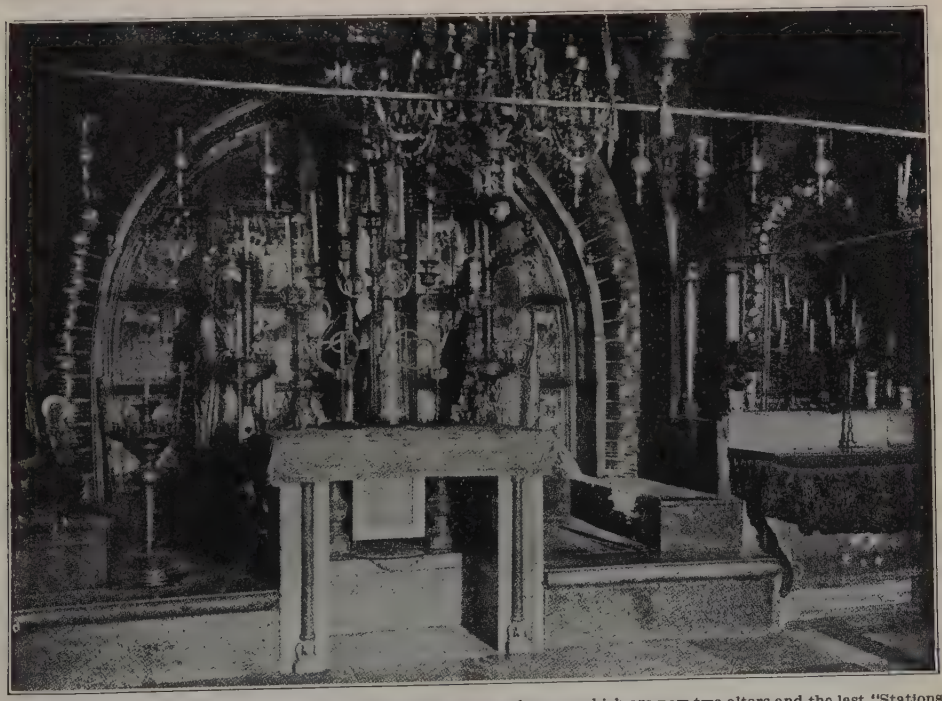
We have possibly thought of Jerusalem as comparatively level but now that we have arrived there, we find the city perched upon a number of hill-tops, on the very crest of the Mountains of Judea, with the hills rolling away to the West toward the Mediterranean and on the east to the Dead Sea and the Plain of the Jordan.

As we go up to the Joppa Gate we find that we are actually going "up" and it brings us to the realization that the words "go up" used so frequently in the Bible, were not really a set form but implied some actual climbing such as we are performing ourselves.

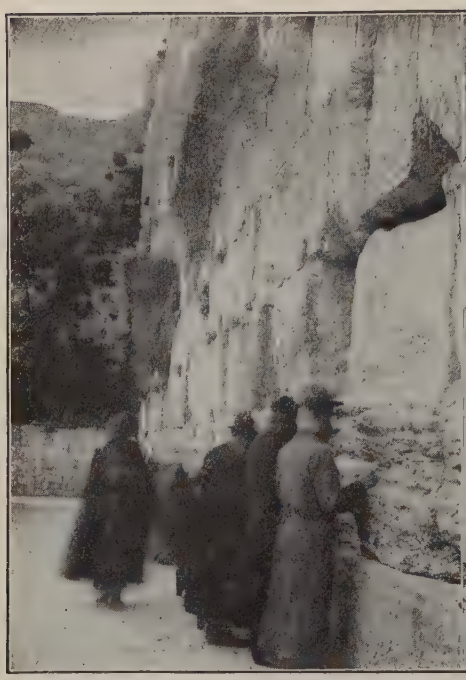
We enter the Joppa Gate and find ourselves right at the center of the western side of the walled city. We start along David Street one of the ancient highways of the town, and turning soon, on the left, into a little coffee-house. We look out of the back window on the Pool of Hezekiah, or Pool of the Patriarchs, one of the landmarks throughout Biblical times. We see it only as a stagnant pool with water covering half of the bottom; but at times it contains quite a good deal of water as it is fed by an aqueduct through which water was originally carried, in Christ's time, some thirty miles along the winding slopes of the ridges from south of Bethlehem. Leaving the coffee-house after having taken a cup of the Turkish beverage, we proceed a little farther to the Church of the Holy Sepulcher, covering the spot where more blood has been shed for the sake of religion than any other one place in the world.

This church occupies the traditional site of Mt. Calvary but according to authorities there is no foundation for this location. St. Helena, the mother of Constantine, "discovered" it in a dream some three centuries after the death of Christ. It is a large structure hemmed in on all sides by buildings and has a number of different chapels situated about the center one in which is located the Holy Sepulcher. These chapels are divided among the different Christian sects—the Armenians, the Syrians, the Russian Catholics, the Roman Catholics and the Coptics. As we entered the doorway we wondered at the Mohammedan guards stationed there but when we inquired as to the reason for their presence we found that they are an absolute necessity to keep the different Christian sects from fighting among themselves over two or three minutes' time for one service or another. It is no wonder the Mohammedans look with scorn upon the Christians when at the spot which is the very source of Christianity a condition so sordid should exist. This fact is also impressed upon us when we visit the manger at Bethlehem and find two Moslem soldiers standing one on either side with muskets in their hands. The Church of the Holy Sepulcher is the goal of the more or

A Jewish funeral on the slope of the Mount of Olives where all the Jews expect to meet at the resurrection on the Judgment Day. The monument with the conical top in the center of the picture they regard as the tomb of Absalom.



Modern Calvary in the Church of the Holy Sepulcher, Jersualem, on which are now two altars and the last "Stations of the Cross." The altars belong to the Greek and Latin Churches. A hole in the wall between them shows the natural rock on which they have been placed.



Wailing place of the Jews. Entrance to the Temple area is forbidden the Jews by the Mohammedans. They assemble outside, wailing and reading from their sacred books.

Church of the Holy Sepulcher. This is a fine example of Norman Gothic building. It is the only part of the church visible from the outside. Note the Mohammedan door keepers.

VIA DOLOROSO

This is a portion of the place pointed out to the pilgrims as the way along which Christ struggled carrying his cross.

GARDEN OF GETHSEMANE

This is the Olive Tree which is pointed out as being the one under which Christ prayed in his agony.

less fanatical Eastern Christians such as the Russians and the Armenians. To us of the Western Hemisphere, on account of our better enlightenment, the delusions indulged in become more and more apparent as we walk about the Church. First we are shown the slab of marble upon which Christ lay when He was anointed for burial; then a round tablet of marble where the Virgin Mary stood watching Him; in a chapel at the side is shown us a post to which Christ was fastened when He was being scourged. Farther around we come to a chapel called Calvary, supposed by the pilgrims to be the actual site of the cross. Descending a flight of steps immediately below this altar we are shown the spot where Adam's skull and bones were found; and descending a little farther we are shown the spot where the cross itself was located by St. Helena.

THE HOLY SEPULCHER

The Holy Sepulcher itself is a large structure some thirty feet square, situated in the middle of the rotunda beneath the dome. It is built of marble and carved wood and hung with innumerable golden lamps. The entrance is very small and on reaching the inside we find nothing but gold and marble on all sides of us. There is nothing about us whatever to suggest a tomb built into the rocky side of a hill, a tomb in front of the door of which was a large stone to be rolled away; and it is only to the peasant pilgrims before mentioned that these remains appear authentic. So, leaving the Church of the Holy Sepulcher, we start up the Via Doloroso or Sorrowful Way, a combination of streets leading from the Church of the Holy Sepulcher to the site of Antonia or traditional residence of Pilate, ending at an arch stretching across the street which is called the "Ecce Homo" Arch. On the way we also see the Stations of the Cross noted on the wall at various intervals denoting the events in Christ's trip from Pilate to the Cross. But about half way along the Via Doloroso we turn to the north and leave it descending a street so steep that it is merely steps in some places; and so we find ourselves coming out of the Damascus gate at the center of the North Wall of the City. We are now approaching the spot supposed to be the actual site of the Crucifixion.

We know from the Bible that this event took place without the walls and inasmuch as the walls at the time of Christ occupied essentially the same location as they do today, we turn to this location as being the more authentic of the two. We find Mt. Calvary to be a hill occupied by a Mohammedan graveyard and wholly separated by a valley some three hundred feet wide, from the city wall, which valley has been cut through both for building material and for strengthening the walls of the city. Turning to our left we go down into an underground quarry known to the Mohammedans as the "Cotton Grotto" but in reality the royal quarry. It is from this quarry that the rock was taken to build the temples of Solomon and Herod and it is still easy to see the niches left by the masons in the spots where they placed their lamps while they chiseled out the immense blocks of limestone. Coming back we cross this valley to the hill known as Calvary, at the foot of which we find a little garden and in the middle of it a doorway leading into a small single chamber carved out of the solid rock. This is believed to be the tomb in which Christ was actually laid, and in the back of it is a stone sarcophagus which is the tomb itself and is pointed out as the probable resting place of our Lord's body. Leaving Calvary, we return to the Via Doloroso and proceed to the Ecce

SHEPHERD AND HERD

The mountains in the background are comparatively near but as this picture is taken about 1300 feet below sea level the air is so dense as to obstruct vision at a distance.

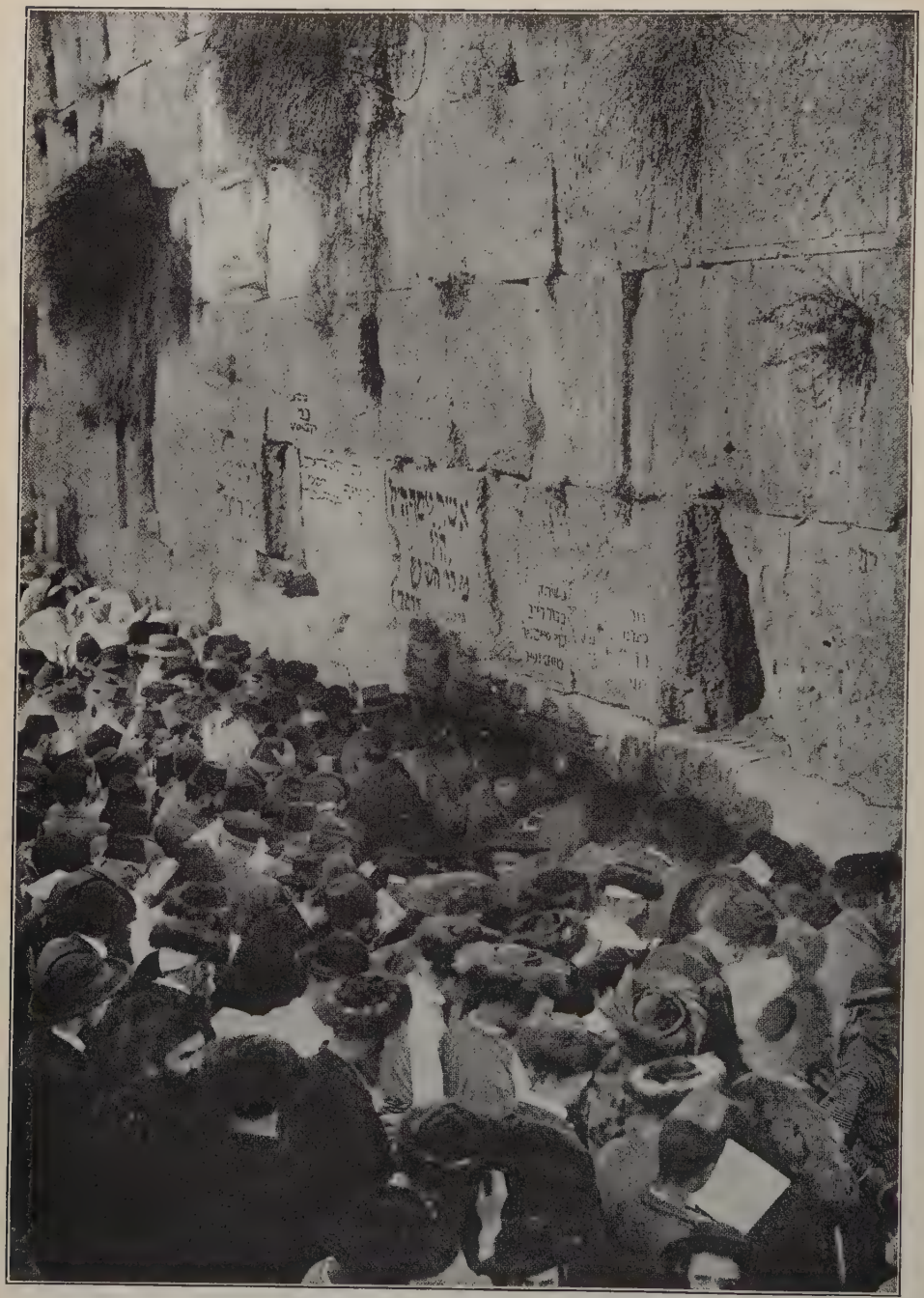
This picture is looking from the front door of the El Aksa th the north towards the Sacred Rock

KING SOLOMON'S STABLES

This massive vaulted structure was actually used by the Crusaders as a stable

READING THE LAW

On the forehead of the Rabbi is bound a phylactery and over his head the tallith with fringes, following literally the directions of the Law of Moses respecting the Word of God. All devout Jews follow this custom from the age of twelve years when a Jew becomes a son of the Law and capable of taking part in the synagogue service.



THE WAILING PLACE OF THE JEWS

The Wailing Place of the Jews, Jerusalem, where for many centuries pious Jews have wept over the stones of their lost inheritance. The lower courses of this sixty foot wall are the work of the masons of Herod the King. On all the days of the week Jews may be found at their devotions on this spot. It is, however, on Friday afternoons and on the eve of fast or feast as shown in the picture, that they assemble here in great numbers.

Homo Arch, at the site of the speaking of those words of Pilate, *Ecce Homo*, (behold the man), when he showed Christ to the multitude. We stand at the northwest corner of that area so sacred to the Mohammedan—the Haram Esh Sheriff or Noble Sanctuary the site of the threshing floor of Onan; of Solomon's, and Herod's temples, the location of the Templum Domini, the Home Church of the Crusaders and the present location of the Kubbet es Sakrah or Dome of the Rock, sometimes incorrectly called the Mosque of Omar, supposed to be the most beautiful building in the world.

THE DOME OF THE ROCK

This is an octagonal building about 150 feet in diameter, situated over an irregularly shaped rock which was the sacrificial altar of the ancient Hebrew Temples of Solomon and Herod. The building is a marvelous example of mosaic and tile work; it contains a number of Corinthian columns brought from different countries, few of them alike. The windows are of stained glass of most beautiful coloring. Next to Mecca this building is most sacred to the Mohammedans on account of its association with the night trip of Mohammed to Jerusalem. It was built about seven hundred years after Christ by the Caliph Omar. It is a shrine and not a mosque and is intended merely as a protection for the sacred rock underneath it. There is, however, in connection with it a mosque situated at the further end of this Temple Area known as the El Aksa which was formerly a Christian church built by Justinian. At the southeast corner of this Temple Area—a spot where the wall is 120 feet high—there is a large subterranean chamber known as King Solomon's Stables. This is the actual place used by the Crusaders for tethering their horses at the time when they occupied Jerusalem and protected the Christian Pilgrims from the attacks of the Saracens. The Temple Area has also underneath it a large number of subterranean cisterns and passages of which some are explored; others are unexplored owing to the sacredness of this spot from a Mohammedan viewpoint. One underground tank which is fed, and has been, for probably three thousand years, by an aqueduct some forty miles in length coming from South Bethlehem, holds when it is full something like a million gallons of water. The water supply of ancient Jerusalem was not an insignificant matter inasmuch as the city was perched on the tops of the hills, but with this tremendous amount of water stored away the city could withstand a siege for a long time. On going back to the Ecce Homo Arch we turn east toward the Mount of Olives, appearing far in the distance and so we come out through the gate named after St. Stephen on account of its being the place of his stoning and we find ourselves on the edge of the valley of the Kedron with the Mount of Olives directly opposite us and the traditional Garden of Gethsemane, in the bottom of the valley. This little garden is maintained by Franciscan Monks and the traditional olive tree under which Christ prayed is pointed out to the traveler. It is evident from the knotted and gnarled appearance of these trees that they are very old. On ascending the Mount of Olives we see the principal landmark the Russian Hospice with its high tower, a building for the accommodation of Russian pilgrims. One other point of interest which is always brought to the attention of the traveler is Christ's footprint supposedly made by Him when He sprang from the earth and ascended into heaven. It is an irregular mark about two feet long like the print of a giant foot and is covered at present

A CHRISTMAS PROCESSION IN BETHLEHEM

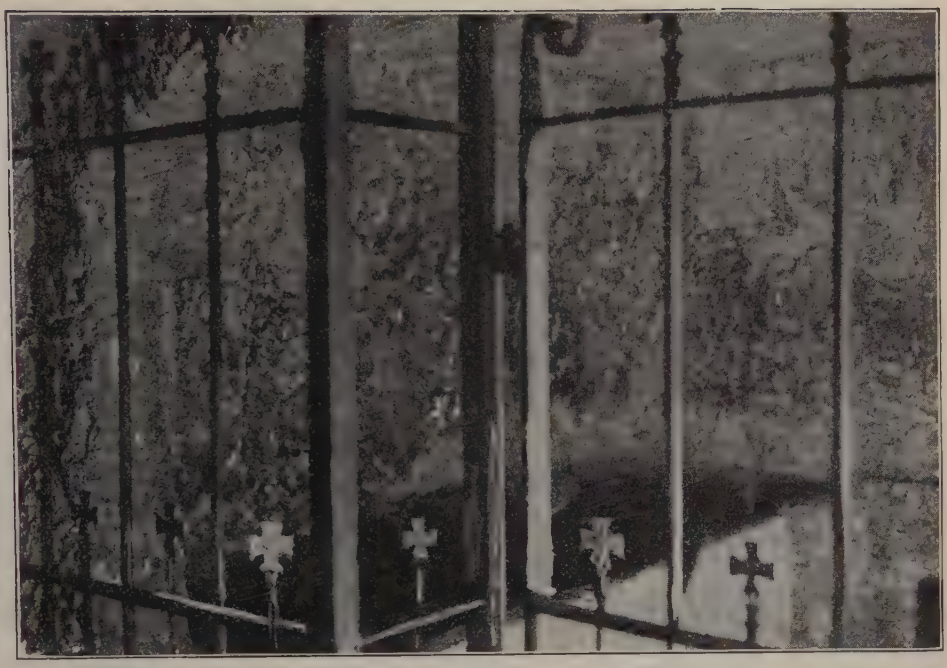
The members of the Latin community are seen returning to the Church of the Nativity. This season is marked by unusual crowds who throng the church and fill the streets and its celebration is attended by all the notable ecclesiastics in the country.

by a little chapel. As we stand on the Mount of Olives we look out across the wilderness of the Dead Sea, some five thousand feet below us with the rapidly falling away steep, barren sides, beneath us. This wilderness of Judea is indeed a wilderness just as it was in ancient times.

Next day comes our visit to Bethlehem. It is an easy drive, five miles to the south of Jerusalem. The Field of the Shepherds attracts us first, we only wish we could have been in them at night, under the brilliant starlit sky. As it is, we enjoy the sunshine on the fields where Ruth gleaned after the reapers of Boaz, on the shining white buildings of the little city standing out against the blue sky, on the broad plain stretching to the Dead Sea, with the purple mountains of Moab gleaming in the distance.

Foremost among the sights of Bethlehem stands out the large and simple Church of the Nativity, whose building was begun about one thousand, six hundred years ago over the spot where Christ was born. As we approach the church it appears to us like a veritable fortress and such it was indeed when it was constructed, as it was designed to withstand the attacks of the Saracens and hostile hordes who constantly menaced the Christians.

The little inn in which Mary and Joseph sought shelter was on the old caravan route, and no doubt the stable to which they were turned was in a rocky cave close by, as many inn stables are seen today. The rocky cave stable said to be the one is now a shrine lined with marble, lighted by lamps burning night and day, supplied by the different churches that have



THE SUPPOSED BIRTHPLACE OF CHRIST

An iron grating has been built in across the rock in order to protect it from too ardent Christians.

The silver star on the floor marks the birthplace of Christ and this is believed to be the only authentically located point connected with the life of Christ.

shares in the various parts of the building. We stoop to read the inscription round the silver star on the floor: "Here Jesus Christ was born of the Virgin Mary."

Moslem soldiers keep guard, as in Jerusalem, to prevent the followers of the Prince of Peace flying at each others' throats over a few inches of a wall or altar. It has been said that more than once the question of the opening or shutting of a door in the churches and convents that have clustered round the ancient church has well-nigh involved Europe in war!

Our next pilgrimage takes us farther afield from Jerusalem, two days' traveling in a carriage, some of it over very rough roads. We start early, out by the Damascus Gate, winding past the Garden Tomb, across the brook Kedron, past the Garden of Gethsemane to the slopes of Olivet. Jerusalem looks lovely in the morning sun, over the steep valley dotted with Jewish graves. Above the striking city walls we see the greenish luster of the wonderful dome built over the Temple site, and the towers and spires all crowded against the sky. Bethany is close at hand in a hollow. The supposed sites of the tomb of Lazarus and the home of Mary and Martha are shown in the village, but we are content to stand on the edge of the hollow, and imagine ourselves gazing with Mary down the mountain, watching and longing for her Friend in her sore trouble. The view onwards is fine, in the clear, bright air; was it here that the words were spoken, "I am the Resurrection and the Life," the words still echoing down the years to comfort those who have lost their dear ones?

And now we go down, down, to the Jordan valley, by zigzag roads as in Swiss mountain passes. It is a steep drop from the heights of Jerusalem, and we get many views of the wonderful deep valley in which the Jordan winds on its way from the Sea of Galilee to the Dead Sea. The distance between the seas, as the crow flies, is only seventy miles, but so great are the windings of the Jordan that its course is nearly three times as long. There is a beautiful harmony between the green of the willows and rushes that border the river and the blue of the calm Dead Sea. It is a hot, rough journey as we near the sea, over a mere track among little mounds of mud and low scrubby bushes, that serve as food for camels.

Greatly do we enjoy a rest on the pebbly beach, and still more a bath in the far-famed salt water, several times salter than the ocean. This saltness is realized when we get a drop in our eyes or mouth. We feel ourselves so light in the Dead Sea that we simply stand upright when out of our depth and tread water. We find it best to swim on our backs, as it is not easy to keep our arms and legs under water.

Invigorating as it is, we are glad of a dip later in the fresh water of the Jordan to wash off the salt that has dried on our skin. We lunch under the green trees by the river, and listen to the stories of our guide about the thousands of pilgrims, chiefly Russians, who come to bathe in the waters of Jordan, the river crossed by the children of Israel on their way to the Promised Land; the river in which John baptized his Master. We seem to see the happy, merry folk, so simple and kindly, so enthusiastic about all they see and hear. They carry away the garments wetted by Jordan water, and keep them to be buried in, for this pilgrimage is the event of their lives.

We spend the night at Jericho, the lowest inhabited spot in the world. Nearly all the course of the Jordan is below the level of the sea; the surface

The Samaritan Passover on Mount Gerizim is still kept according to the manner recorded in Exodus XII. This illustration represents the tents of the Samaritans where they spend the time required for the ceremony on the mountain above their homes in the city of Nablus.

THE FEAST OF TABERNACLES

A tabernacle or booth, built on a house-top, of branches of trees and palms, and decorated with corn to show the fruits of the earth and their ingathering. Every family has its tabernacle and entertains its various members very liberally.

of the Dead Sea is nearly one thousand, three hundred feet below the level of the Mediterranean. The Old Testament Jericho, so wonderfully besieged and taken, and the New Testament Jericho, where blind Bartimæus begged, and Zacchæus collected taxes, are both marked now by rubbish-heaps and ruins. It is on the site of the Jericho of Crusading times that the modern village stands, surrounded by gardens and groves of fruit trees.

It is a long climb back to Jerusalem. The pilgrims do it on foot; so did the multitudes who went out to hear and see the Baptist by the Jordan.

And now begins the most adventurous part of our journey. We might do it easily by taking train from Jerusalem back to Jaffa, thence fifty miles northward by steamer to Haifa, and then by carriage to Nazareth. But for many reasons—chief of which is we want to *live* in the great past, see the views that Jesus saw, see the peasants as He saw them—we decide to take the land journey by carriage to Nablus, and then to Nazareth on horseback.

It is a wonderful farewell view we get of Jerusalem as we mount the hill to the north and look back at the panorama; and then all day long we pass over rough hills and beautiful valleys, over rocky passes with bright streams, over fertile fields. With bewildering rapidity we leave behind us sites connected with David, Samuel, Eli, Joshua and his followers. We sleep at Nablus, the old city of Shechem, the first city (Sichem) mentioned in the Bible. Here live the remnant—only some two hundred poor folk—of the old Samaritans, and in their interesting synagogue we see the famous and ancient roll of the books of Moses and Joshua.

The Vale of Shechem is grandly walled in by two mountains, one dry and bare, with masses of prickly pear, the other, at its base, clothed with lovely flowers and shrubs, and gay with leaping brooks. We turn aside to see Jacob's Well, where Christ, weary with the heat, sat and rested and talked with the woman of Samaria.

The Kings of Israel did indeed find a grand site for their new capital, towering on its lonely hill, rising from broad and fertile plains. We take in as much as we can of the position of Ahab's ivory palace, of the ruins of the grand colonnade, of the magnificent views all round. What wild and stirring scenes once raged where now sad ruin and desolation brood over the Hill of Samaria!

Presently our way takes us across the Vale of Dothan, and as we go we live again in the familiar story of Joseph, and watch the dreamer coming over the fields to his brothers. We shudder at their treatment of the boy as we look into the old rock-cut bottle-shaped cisterns, into one of which he may have been let down, and, in that cloud of dust out yonder, we almost fancy we can see the caravan of Ishmaelites to whom he was sold, traveling on the ancient highway we are crossing. It is still a principal trade route between the Euphrates and Egypt.

As we cross the plain of Esdraelon we realize that we are in the very heart of a great battlefield where men have striven with each other from the times of Sisera to those of Allenby. At this point we cross the railroad running from Beyrout to Damascus. These cedars which were used in the construction of the Temples of Jerusalem were taken down to the seacoast and from there transported to the seaport of Joppa whence they were carried to Jerusalem, an undertaking which must have been tremendous in those days of primitive means of transportation and engineering.

As the eventful day closes, the last ridge is crossed, and we are at Nazareth.

Next day we spend some happy hours among the rocky fields around, picking the "lilies of the field," watching the birds, and the boys tending sheep and goats. Things change here so little through the centuries that we have little difficulty in seeing them as they were two thousand years ago. Here are women grinding at the mill, travelers in flowing garments with scrip and staff, oxen plowing, people living on the house-tops, men carrying water in "bottles" made of the skins of animals. Our chief interest in Nazareth is to watch the mothers and children at the well, now called the Virgin's Well, in memory of the days when Mary came to it with her pitcher, holding her little Son by the hand.

Next day the carriage takes us on past Cana and the Hill of Blessings, and then at last we look down on the blue and sparkling Sea of Galilee, fringed round with green hills. We greatly enjoy a sail on the lake, seeing the spot where the Jordan enters strong and full into it, and noting on its shores the ruins of the old towns with familiar names that were dotted about it in the time of Christ. Ships and boats were busy then on its waters, plying from one to the other; the fishermen, too, had good markets for their abundant hauls of fish. In the early morning, next day, we cross it again from Tiberias, and amid the quiet ripple of the little waves we think of the scenes on its shores, of the storms, of the words borne across the water, "It is I, be not afraid."

From Semakh we take the train to Damascus, a journey of a few hours. Such varied scenery we pass, picturesque river valleys, pools of hot sulphur, bare plains dotted with the mounds of buried cities, and fine views from time to time of the snowy giant, Mount Hermon, whence springs the Jordan. The last part of the way is over the Damascus-Mecca Railway, by which thousands of pilgrims now travel toward the birthplace of Mohammed. The buildings of Damascus, of a pearly gray color, surrounded by thousands of the greenest trees, have gained for it the name of "pearl set in emeralds." It is also called the Immortal City, the oldest city in the world, for Damascus was full of people, thriving and beautiful, long ages before Rome was born.

We feel we would like many weeks, instead of days, in which to wander by the two rivers that make the fertile site of Damascus. In the bazars we are delighted with things old and new which show the skill of the people from early days in metal and leather work and in beautiful damask linen and hangings.

But we must tear ourselves away to visit the Great Mosque, for about it hangs the story of the lovely city from the days when Naaman, the Syrian captain, gained permission to bow himself in the House of Rimmon, and onward through Roman and Christian times.

It is but a short journey by train to visit the grand ruins of the Temple of the Sun and of Bacchus, and the stupendous quarries of stone at Baalbek, in the plain between the two Lebanon ranges. Columns are still standing ninety feet high, immense flights of steps are still to be seen, and remains of huge terraces and walls.

By the old road that leads from Baalbek to the cedars of Lebanon, the traveler has to climb a pass eight thousand feet above the level of the sea, whence the view is superb, over snowy peaks, over mountain streams and valleys, far away to the Mediterranean on the one side, and to the

desolate distant ridges on the other. The cedars, grand and dreary as they are, some of them perhaps two thousand or three thousand years old, are but a remnant of the forests so famous in the days of Solomon.

But we have to take the train from Baalbeck to the port of Beirut, across the Lebanon range, and a most beautiful journey it is. The highest point is nearly five thousand feet above the sea, and the railway descends in zigzags through pine-forests. As we look out from the train, we think we have seen nothing more beautiful in all our tour than the views over the Mediterranean in the afternoon sun. As we arrive at Beirut we find, as indeed we have throughout Palestine, a number of English speaking natives, and in this city we find the large Presbyterian college, established by Americans, which is responsible for the large amount of English at present spoken throughout the Holy Land. It is one of the few examples where missionaries and missionary money has been expended in the Holy Land, which, while being the cradle of Christianity, has been sadly neglected in this particular. Missionaries have been scattered broadcast throughout the world while Palestine has been left out and is sorely in need of uplifting. It is a country with merely a memory, possessing nothing of the grandeur which it held in ancient days. Even the climate seems to have betrayed it, leaving barren fields where fertile vineyards once stood.

However, at present there is a colonization going on which may be the salvation of this country and within one or two generations we may see Palestine, the home of the Jews, as it was at the time of our Lord.

GENERAL VIEW OF JERUSALEM FROM THE MOUNT OF OLIVES

New World Travelogues

HISTORICAL AND DESCRIPTIVE

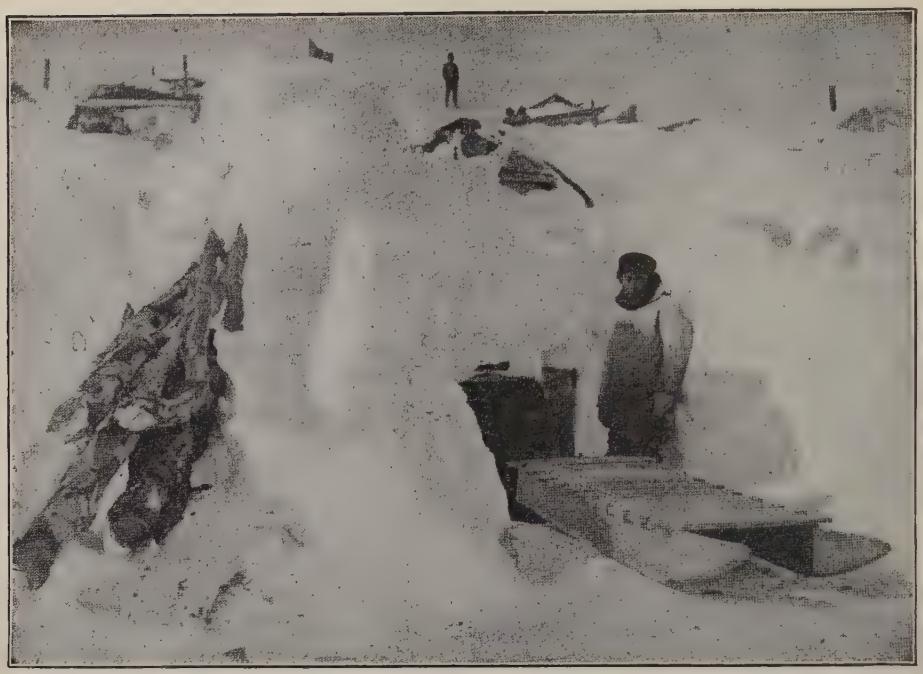
LIFE AMONG THE ESKIMOS

MEXICO—LAND OF ADVENTURE
AND REVOLUTION

CANADA—THE LADY OF THE WHITE SNOW

BEYOND PANAMA INTO SOUTH AMERICA

93



AN ESKIMO WINTER SNOW HOUSE

LIFE AMONG THE ESKIMOS

THE Eskimos have been called a circumpolar people, though they inhabit in great part the northern regions of North America. They comprise twenty-two different tribes, numbering about forty thousand persons, but the same characteristics are found in common.

These dwellers in a barren, bitter land are essentially a maritime people, and rarely get any distance from the sea from which they wrest a rough and precarious living. Their existence depends primarily on the seal, which gives them food and clothing and provides them with light and fuel. The word Eskimo means "raw meat eaters," and where civilization has not reached them they exhibit wonderful ways of successfully meeting all the conditions of polar life. These Eskimos are born and reared and spend their lives in circumstances which for hardship and primitiveness have few, if any, equals among even the least fortunate of the peoples of the world.

The harsh conditions of Nature which have compelled them to herd together have developed a crude and simple socialism among these children of the chase. Tents made of skins form their summer homes, and primitive houses give them accommodation during the winter. Into these structures men and women and children of different families are crowded, and in them the people are born, are ill and die, and from them they are carried to their graves.

Throughout the long Arctic winter these men, women and children live in one room, eating, drinking and sleeping, and mourning and merry-making; yet there is nothing in the nature of a breach of the peace. This amiability and toleration is one of the

most notable characteristics of the Eskimo people; indeed, they have no word to express scolding, nor have they the equivalent of "war." They are sparing of words, and their language is so compressed that one word will express the meaning of a score of words in other languages.

to have a just cause of complaint; but if dissatisfaction is expressed, then it is reckoned that he is punished. Dancing at these gatherings adds to the general good-humor of the occasion.

The ordinary marriage customs of the Eskimos are simple, and love-

ESKIMO WOMEN CARRYING THEIR BABIES

In a spacious sort of hood the Eskimo carries her baby and goes about her work and her duties. When she sits down she jerks the hood forward and the infant is shot out, but the mother never fails to catch it. The hut, made of poles and skins, is a typical summer dwelling.

When quarrels arise, the Eskimos have a singular and amusing method of settling them. The man who has a grievance sets forth his complaint in a song, and when this has been composed to his satisfaction, his enemy is invited to come and listen to it, which the enemy does, for these occasions are something in the nature of general entertainments to which friends of both parties are welcomed. There is much drum-beating while the song of wrongs is being sung. If approval of the song is shown, then the vocalist is considered to have triumphed and

making is an infinitely more prosaic proceeding than it is in countries which are more favored by Nature. Weddings are casual happenings, and there is no established form of marriage. If a man wants a wife he accordingly gets a woman to act as one. It is an elastic arrangement, for if the female does not prove satisfactory the man sends her back home and tries another or he may keep her and still try another. When some sort of form is observed in relation to the marriage understanding, the bride is regarded as being adequately equipped if she

brings her clothes and a lamp and a knife. Having become a married woman, she forthwith carries out the heavy and often degrading duties attendant on her lord's welfare and comfort. There is much hard work to be done in preparing the sealskins for the needle. This task falls upon the women, who are obliged to chew the skin in order to soften it. Persistent occupation of this sort on such difficult material often wears the teeth down to the gums.

VALUE OF RELATIONSHIP

Despite this casual method of alliances, relationship is highly valued, and there is a strongly developed wish to continue the species, with a particular desire for male descendants; consequently, there exists a real regard for children, and the little mortals are treated with a care and kindness that could scarcely be expected from parents reared in such a repressing environment. From the cradle to the grave the Eskimo has to fight for his existence, yet everything it is possible to do is done for the children. The youngsters are docile and contented, and rarely know the meaning of harshness or unkindness. Orphans are readily adopted, even when parents have a number of children to provide for; and it seldom happens that these new-comers are not treated with just the same kindness and consideration that are shown to the parents' own offspring.

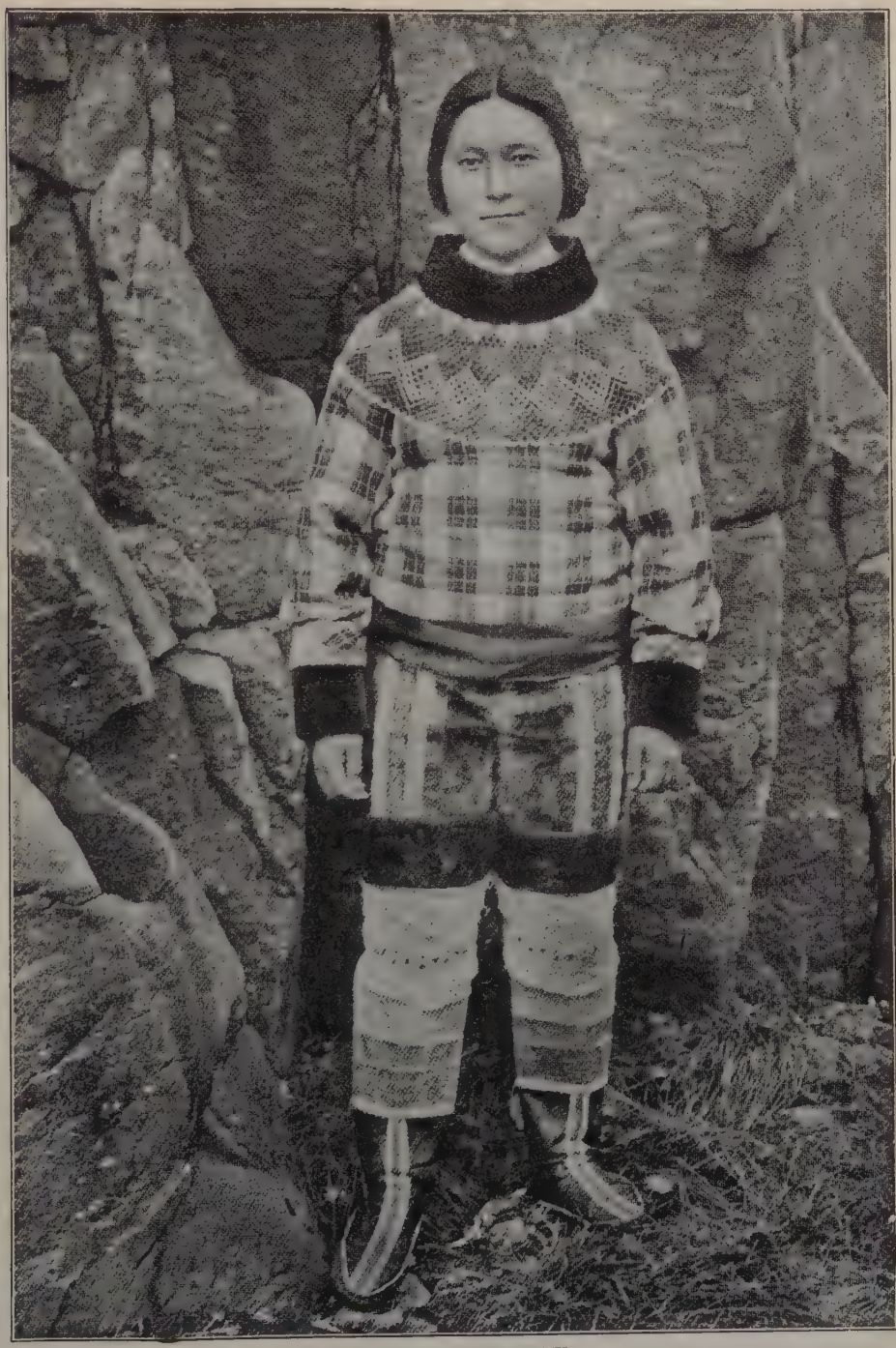
In the matter of dress there is little difference between that of the men and the clothing of the women. Trousers are common to both sexes and the forms of headdress are practically the same. The men of South Greenland wear a garment called a *timiak*, made of bird-skins, the feathers being turned inward. This *timiak* has a hood, which is drawn over the head in the open air. Another garment, called *anorak*, a sort of vest, made of cotton, is worn over the *timiak*. The trousers are made of sealskin, and the same material is employed for the footgear, which serves the double purpose of sock and shoe. The combination is called *kamils*. These consist of an inner sock, with the fur turned inward, and an outside shoe, made of hairless, watertight hide. Into the fur interior the naked foot is put.

The women also of South Greenland wear a jacket made of bird-skin, but it differs from the men's garment in that it has no hood. Instead of the hood there is a high collar made of black dog-skin, outside of which a highly colored broad necklace of beads is worn. In the cases of both men and women, the wrists of the bird-skin garments are decorated with black dog-skin, the women's cotton vests being the brightest colors that can be obtained. In spite of her apparently hopeless environment, the Eskimo woman possesses an astonishing amount of feminine vanity, and, in addition to donning as much color as she can assume, she uses brightly colored leather to embroider her trousers of mottled sealskin or the skin of the reindeer.

The most striking of the Eskimo garments, however, is the *amant*, which is used by women who are nursing children. The *amant* is in appearance very much like the *anorak*, with the exception that at the back there is a sort of pouch into which the child is put. This pouch is lined with sealskin or reindeer-skin, and forms a cosy and warm and safe retreat for the child; and it enables the mother to carry the infant about with her constantly, without interfering in any way with her duties and her work.

DECORATIVE DRESS OF THE ESKIMO

More elaborate and decorative still is the dress of the Eskimos who live



A GREENLAND BEAUTY

In and near the settlements there are some quite attractive-looking women, but these are not the pure Eskimo breed. The faces and features of the pure-bred Eskimos are flatter than that which is shown. The lace adornment is uncommon, and is probably foreign work. The girl shown is about twenty years old, and is Mongolian with a mixture of Danish blood. She comes from Tkerasak, North-west Greenland.

CUTTING UP A SEAL

The seal is the mainstay of the Eskimos, and the capture and cutting up of one is an absorbingly interesting event. To the left of the photograph is seen a kayak, the light canoe in which the Eskimo does his work afloat.

BOYS' GAMES

The Eskimos are a cheerful people and enter with great zest into their simple games. A party of young people is shown who have been disporting themselves with a sledge, the places of the dogs have been taken by children.

in and near the missionary settlements. This statement has special application to the females, and the quite modern type of Eskimo girl is often very much of a belle, and the children are well and picturesquely clothed. So completely up to date are the more modern ones that they are provided with the latest snow goggles, which are also used by the women, especially when they are engaged in outdoor tasks, such as fishing, which require the exercise of great patience. When the women of some of the tribes are unable to satisfy their cravings for finery, they have some compensation in the crude tattooings which are carried out, and which are looked upon as distinct embellishments.

A TATTOOED WOMAN

The modern and mixed type of Eskimos are occasionally tattooed, but in some of the circumpolar regions the practice is unknown.

The hair of the Eskimo does not readily lend itself to attractive dressing, though a few of the most comely women manage to give it an agreeable appearance. Black and straight, and exceedingly coarse, the hair of the men is mostly allowed to grow wild, and sometimes it is never cut. A band or thong is used to keep the hair back from the face. The usual mode of dressing adopted by the women is to knot the hair in a tuft on the crown of the head. This knot or tuft is a source of great pride, and the wearer's chief object is to make it stand up as stiff as possible. In the knotting and tying different colored ribbons are used in Greenland. A red ribbon is worn by unmarried women; but if they have had a child the red is changed to green, this color being also worn by a widow who has a child. A blue ribbon indicates a married woman and a black ribbon a widow: but frequently old widows wear a white ribbon.

The very nature of the Eskimo's lives makes personal cleanliness impossible. When water is to be had only by melting snow or ice by means of precious fuel, it follows that the liquid is used only for essential purposes. Some advantage in the way of cleanliness and comfort is gained by the custom of certain Eskimos, men, women and children, going about in their tents and houses entirely naked. The unwholesome warmth of the interiors of these dwellings induces the Eskimo to cast aside their clothing in the way described. The custom disappears with the advent of Europeans, but Dr. Nansen considered this as more the result of affectation than real modesty.

RELIGION A COMPOUND OF IDOLATRY AND FEAR

The religion of the Eskimo is a compound of fear and idolatry, but mostly fear, the greatest of all the spirits he dreads being the spirit of Death, called *Torngak*. This imaginary being is a fit dweller in a suppositious cavern in the lonely mountains, and as he is believed to hold the lives and

fortunes of the Eskimos in the hollow of his mighty hand varied measures are taken to propitiate him. This spirit is approached through the conjuror, who is also employed when dealings are necessary with lesser spirits, whose homes are believed to be in the depths of the sea or in secret places on the land. The Eskimos do not believe in the existence of a hell. Religious festivals are held by the Eskimos, who, in conducting them, wear masks to give effect to their performances. However, they are very susceptible to the influence of the missionaries who work among them, and many have not hesitated to abandon their pagan practices in favor of Christianity. The Eskimos, too, in other directions show a tendency to relinquish old habits when they are satisfied that new methods are better.

Many diseases, particularly consumption, ravage the Eskimos, whose hard lives and often insufficient food make them ready victims to grave ailments. Nor do the people as a rule attain an advanced age, though the modern medical methods which are being employed amongst them are undoubtedly tending to a prolongation of life.

When Eskimos die, their bodies are buried on land or cast into the sea, the particular possessions of the deceased being placed on the beach or by the grave. This is partly for the sake of getting the things out of the way, so that they shall not act as reminders of the departed, and partly because there is a feeling that the dead person may have use of them in the spirit world and may have that use when the things are destroyed and the spirits have gone to another sphere.

Civilization has greatly altered their customs and mode of life, but on the whole, contact with outsiders has proved disadvantageous to the Eskimos.

A LONELY SEPULCHER

When a man is buried his possessions are put in or outside the grave, and here is seen one of the soapstone shallow dishes which are used as lamps.

Popocatepetl, the great "smoking mountain" of the Cordilleras

MEXICO—LAND OF ADVENTURE AND REVOLUTION

YOU doubtless have sailed in imagination with Columbus about the Caribbean Sea, and pictured to yourselves the clear water and the lovely islands and shores that enclose it. We now want you to pass into the neighboring gulf, to mount into the country of Mexico, to look closer at the irregularly shaped bridge of land, Central America, that joins the great north and south continents of the New World.

Let us look carefully at the shape of the gulf, into which the Father of Waters, the Mississippi, and the Great River of the North, the Rio Grande del Norte, pour the southern drainage of North America. The two peninsulas of Yucatan and Florida shut it in like doors, and Cuba lies between them. Columbus, in his journal, wrote of Cuba: "This is the most beautiful island eyes ever beheld. One could live here forever."

Let us notice, too, the way in which the vast bulk of North America tapers through Mexico to Central America. We must next make sure that we see clearly that Central America consists of four narrow isthmuses, with bulging masses of land between them. The most important of the four are Tehuantepec, 125 miles across, where North America ends, though Yucatan and a small neighboring state are included in Mexico, and Panama, only about 35 miles across, beyond which South America begins. Then let us pause for a moment's thought about the mighty mountain chain stretching, under different names, for thousands of miles from Alaska in the far north, to the extreme tip of the pear-shaped southern continent. There are many volcanoes in this long chain, especially about the middle of it, in Central America and Mexico. At Panama the great heights sink to about 3000 feet, and the pass, or saddle, between these low mountains is less than 300 feet high. To the west of the mountains lies the vast expanse of the Pacific Ocean.

Four hundred years ago no one could have given this simple description of the position of Mexico and Central America. Columbus died fully believing that the land he discovered was part of Asia; it was only by degrees, as his successors cruised about the low-lying shores of the gulf and the sea, as they caught glimpses

of the ocean beyond, as they sought, ever in vain, to find a way for their ships through Central America to that ocean, that the truth came to them that they were not on the fringe of Asia, but on a great continent which lay between them and their desires.

THE GOLDEN LAND THAT LAY BEYOND THE WESTERN SEAS

Wonderful rumors spread by these adventurous spirits soon reached Cuba, one of the first islands settled by the Spaniards. There were stories of massive temples and great stone idols; of large towns with thousands of busy workers; of people with rich clothes and great possessions in gold and silver and jewels.

All these, they said, were to be found inland from the shores of the gulf. Daring deeds were daily occurrences in the sixteenth century, but one of the most romantic and desperate expeditions ever planned and carried out was that of the brilliant Spanish commander, Cortes, to test the truth of these rumors, and to annex whatever he might find for his emperor, Charles the Fifth of Spain, just twenty years after the death of Columbus.

Eleven ships, carrying 400 Europeans, 200 natives, 16 horses, and 14 guns, seems but a small force with which to attempt a passage into an unknown land. But Cortes, who wrote history with his sword, knew no fear, and pushed forward in spite of all obstacles. We long to follow him every foot of the way, but must be content with glimpses of his bravery and dash; with the mere mention of the shipwrecked captive Spaniard and the lovely native girl who acted as interpreters.

As the wonderful story unfolds, we see the founding of the port of the True Cross—Vera Cruz—the friendliness of the tribes near the coast, the famous beaching and burning of all the ships, save one, that had brought the expedition, so that none could retreat.

THE WONDERS OF THE LAND OF ROMANCE TO WHICH CORTES LED HIS MEN

The best one was spared to send home to Spain with news and specimens of the work and treasures of the country. There is a case of treasures, such as Cortes sent home, in the American Room of the British Museum; among them are wonderful masks in turquoise mosaic, a crystal skull, a two-headed blue serpent, and some most interesting picture writing. On and on toiled the party from the hot, unhealthy lands by the sea, with its tangle of tropical vegetation, up the rugged country which leads by high terrace steps to the great plateau of Mexico, 7000 feet and more above the level of the sea.

What a treat was the pure, cool air, the grand sight of the snow-topped volcanoes before them, and how astonished were the travelers at the prickled cactus hedges, and the cultivated fields and fine forests and lakes, and the wealth of bright flowers on every side! Surely the plateau and its ridges of mountains must have reminded the Spaniards of their far-away home country, and given them courage to venture on, so as to add to her dominions and glory.

Montezuma, the ruler of this fair country belonging to the Aztec or Mexican race, had more than once sent presents and messages to Cortes, begging him to go away. But Cortes went steadily on till he reached the city of Tenochtitlan, the ancient city of Mexico, on the great lakes that lay in the midst of the plateau.

THE TERROR OF THE AZTECS WHEN THE WHITE MEN CAME AMONG THEM

The Aztecs were terrified at the pale faces of the Spaniards, at the horses

and guns, none of which they had seen before, and they seem almost to have believed that Cortes was the white war-god of their legends come back as he had promised centuries before, for the guns appeared to them to flash lightning, and the horses to travel like the wind. If Cortes was disappointed with Tenochtitlan, he did not say so in his letters home, but enlarged on the glory and splendor of the city, its temples and buildings, its cypress-crowned hill, Chapultepec, with its magnificent view.

It was not long before Cortes got Montezuma entirely into his power. So great was the tact and resource of the great commander, that it seemed as if all were about to be peaceably arranged for the transfer of the country and its government. But Cortes had to return for a time to Vera Cruz, and his deputy at Tenochtitlan enraged the Aztec people with his cruelty. Cortes returned only just in time to save his forces from utter destruction.

Montezuma, still a prisoner, was persuaded by the Spaniards to speak to his subjects, and urge them to stay their attack on the strangers. An impressive sight he must have looked standing on the flat roof of the palace, dressed in his blue and white mantle, his blazing jewels, fine crown, and golden sandals dazzling in the sun. But the moment of surprised stillness caused by his appearance passed, and the furious people, refusing to listen longer, flung arrows and stones in a great tumult. Montezuma—their king—was fatally wounded during this encounter. The day after his death, when things looked black indeed for the Spaniards, Cortes cut his way out of the capital in the darkness. This was known as the "sad night." Men and horses perished in numbers on the narrow path by the waters of the canal and lake, and, when the remnant gathered together in the country beyond, Cortes wept tears of despair.

But the genius of the leader shone only the brighter for this check. Somehow he managed to rally his forces, and within a week he utterly defeated the brave Aztecs, who came out to withstand him. They fled in confusion, more than ever convinced that he must be a god, and not a mere man. Within eight months, by means of help from neighboring tribes, and by unheard-of efforts in organizing an army and arranging for its keep and transport, the beautiful plateau of Mexico, with its ruined capital, Tenochtitlan, was under the power of Cortes. When the town rose again by the lake, it was as the City of Mexico.

The country, for awhile, was put under military rule, and became part of the huge dominions which so oppressed the weary emperor, Charles the Fifth, of Spain, Austria and the Netherlands. Cortes was not content with these successes. He made many explorations in Central America, always hoping to find a way through to the Pacific.

By degrees more colonies for Spain were founded, in Yucatan and Honduras, and in other parts of the land whose secrets were revealed by the energy of the great commander and his officers. Cortes even pushed up the long narrow Gulf of California, and before long the Spaniards had also found their way far beyond the plateau of Mexico in all directions. The history of the peoples whom the Spaniards found in Mexico and Central America has not yet been fully unraveled. Scholars are still at work studying the wonderful ruins of temples that are discovered from time to time, the carvings on great stone idols and altars, and the picture writing

on various relics. Some of these we can see for ourselves in museums, and interesting it is indeed to trace resemblances in them to the work of other countries, such as Egypt and Babylon and China.

THE MYSTERY OF THE FIRST PEOPLE WHO SETTLED IN AMERICA

Where the first people came from to settle in America, we know not, but the remains found on the soil show that through the long centuries before the vast lands were discovered by Europeans, different races of people had lived and died on them for generation after generation. Sometimes they destroyed the works of those who went before them; sometimes they grafted their own stock and works upon those of their predecessors. In time we hope to understand more about these shadowy tribes, about the Toltecs and their interesting legends, about the Mayas and their high civilization, about the Aztecs and their curious picture writing, and their settlements on the plateau of Mexico after centuries of wandering.

When Cortes went to Honduras, he passed, all unknowingly, a wonderful palace of the Mayas, hidden by the thick growth of trees and shrubs. As relics are found they are carefully studied, with a view to trace the various customs, beliefs, and histories of the old peoples and tribes who for many hundreds of years had been making progress in civilization, not only unknown to the dwellers in the Old World, but equally strange and unknown in many cases to other dwellers in their own world, which we have come to call the New.

THE GREAT ZEAL OF THE SPANIARDS TO CONVERT THE HEATHEN AZTECS

As we know, the Spaniards classed the natives they found in the New World all together under the mistaken names of Indians. Now the civilization and conversion to the Christian faith of these so-called Indians was one of the chief objects of the Spanish conquerors. Bands of devoted missionaries went out from Europe to the new possessions to teach the natives to give up their wild, roving life and the heathen customs of their religion, such as offering human sacrifices to idols.

Cortes himself did his best to persuade Montezuma to accept Christianity, but the Aztec chief was only puzzled by the new ideas so hastily thrust upon him. Everywhere, in the first zeal of overthrowing heathenism, idols and temples, inscriptions and carvings were cast down, buried, defaced; so that the task of finding out the truth about the past has been made even harder than it might have been.

But, deep as is the wonder and interest of the story of the old New World, of the early peoples in Mexico and Central America, as shown by the works of their hands, romantic as is the story of the introduction of the natives to the Spaniards, the growth of the country under Spain is still more interesting; and even more thrilling and romantic than the conquest of Cortes are the events of the last hundred years.

THE TERRIBLE CRUELTIES OF THE SPANISH CONQUERORS IN AMERICA

As the years passed on the native races settled down, after many difficulties, under the new religion and the new rulers. The burning of victims, under the terrible Inquisition of the Christians, must have seemed to the Mexicans strangely like the sacrifices offered to the cruel gods of their forefathers, and all sorts of superstitions belonging to the old faith were grafted on to the new. Viceroys were sent out from Spain during three centuries to govern, or misgovern, in the king's name; sixty-four of them in all.

There is scarcely another story in all history so romantic as that of the Spanish conquest of Mexico in the sixteenth century. With an army of 400 European soldiers and 16 horses, both of which numbers were afterwards slightly increased Cortes, the Spanish commander, set out to conquer a mighty empire. He had to meet a whole nation in arms; but when disaster seemed certain, Cortes, by ability and skill, routed the Mexican army at the famous battle of Otumba, as shown here, and later subdued the whole country for his king.

More than three centuries after the Spanish conquest of Mexico the country was again invaded. The Emperor Napoleon III. of France, making the unjust treatment of foreigners in Mexico an excuse, intervened in 1862, and forced an emperor of his own choosing, the Archduke Maximilian of Austria, upon the country. In 1867, however, the French troops had to withdraw from Mexico and some time after Maximilian was shot by order of the republican commander. We see here the French army, under Marshal Bazaine, entering the city of Mexico.

Some were good and kind, some terribly the reverse. Throughout these years the missionary priests were hard at work trying to influence the natives towards a spirit of quiet obedience; the religion they offered them did not teach them to think for themselves. Many beautiful towns were founded after Spanish models, with Spanish names and fine cathedrals; schools and colleges rose up in them, and Spanish families went out to make new homes in the Far West.

Roads and bridges made travel and trade easier. As agriculture was extended and improved, mining and forestry were developed, and the raising of cattle then became an important industry.

Both Mexico and Central America offer vast possibilities in all these directions. In the tropical lowlands, rice, sugar, cocoa, and cotton grow easily. On the rising terraces, coffee, maize, and tobacco find suitable conditions, and wheatfields lead up to the grassy downs, which make good pasture land for the cattle and the splendid horses, for which the country gradually became famous as the years went by.

THE VAST NATURAL RICHES FOUND IN THE FORESTS AND MINES OF MEXICO

The magnificent forests abound with every valuable kind of tree, from the rubber tree to the mahogany. As for the mines, Mexico is rich in various kinds of metal—silver, gold, copper, and lead, among many others. Sulphur is obtained from the crater of the smoking mountain, Popocatepetl. Another remarkable volcano is Jorullo, thrown up by an earthquake in a single night in 1759, from fertile fields of sugar and indigo.

In time, many Spaniards intermarried with the natives, particularly in Central America; and so many great men of these countries are descended from the conquered, as well as from the conquerors, and a large mixed nation has grown up, with a certain number of pure-blooded Spaniards at the top of society, and many natives "of no account" at the bottom. New Spain gradually came to include nearly all the country round the Gulf of Mexico, and reached out northward to California, though the outlying districts were very thinly peopled.

Spain ever needed all she could get out of her distant provinces, for her wars at home were constant in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Under some viceroys the taxes were excessive, and the people were oppressed in order to send riches to Spain; but under other viceroys the rule was milder, and sometimes even indulgent.

HOW HIDALGO BEGAN THE STRUGGLE THAT ENDED IN MEXICO'S FREEDOM

When the feeling of revolt against tyranny was voiced in different countries, and the longing for independence and freedom ever grew stronger, until it found expression in the American and French Revolutions, Mexico, too, realized its hardships. A time of struggle began against rule from overseas, which lasted for many years. Hidalgo, born five years after the Boston tea-party, was one of the first Mexicans to say boldly that he wanted Mexico to be Mexico, not a helpless dependency of Spain.

When he and his little band of friends dared to raise their banner with the cry, "Up with true religion; down with false government!" it was an unheard-of thing that any ordinary man of the country—not appointed by Spain to office—should venture even to express an opinion. Hidalgo, a poor priest and a man of the people boldly worked for government by the people. The end of a most exciting campaign of nine months was ap-

parent failure, for Hidalgo and his companions were taken prisoners and shot, and their heads for ten years remained fixed on spikes at the corners of a large building in Guanajuato, a rich and flourishing city in the second largest mining province in Mexico.

THE SAD END OF THE HEROES WHO TRIED TO SET MEXICO FREE

The people who lived in those times no doubt thought Hidalgo had failed. We who live a hundred years later know that he succeeded gloriously in awakening his countrymen, and preparing the ground for the great struggle that was coming. Today, in front of the building where his dead lips preached to all that passed by, there now stands a bronze statue of "Hidalgo, the first liberator of his country."

The next great name is that of Morelos, who, three years after the execution of Hidalgo, was leading the Independents from victory to victory, on the Pacific coast, in the picturesque country of lower levels, shaded with the banana and orange trees, and on the higher plateau, taking towns or defending them, forming a congress, and sending out a declaration of independence, as their northern neighbors had done a generation before.

But the tide turned, and in 1815, six months after Napoleon lost his last battle, Morelos, who had much of the ability, without the opportunities, of the Upsetter of the Peace of Europe, was in his turn taken prisoner and shot. The Royalists hoped that now the troublesome new ideas were stamped out. How little they knew! The heroic, patriotic Morelos, whom they treated with insult and shot, is now adored by the Mexican people. They know that the attention of the mass of the people, first awakened by Hidalgo, was fully aroused by the life and sacrifice of Morelos. He showed them, as well as the world looking on, that the old Mexican blood was capable of great deeds, and that freedom for the country was no mere dream.

We look in vain on the map for the city in which he was born under the name it bore at that time, Valladolid, for it has since been renamed "Morelia," after its greatest citizen. One of the states of the Mexican union also bears his name.

For some time after the death of Morelos, ideas of independence worked and grew chiefly in secret, in the mountains and in far-off spots. Presently a change came about, which gave the Mexicans a chance to ask for more freedom.

THE JOY WHEN MEXICO WAS AT LAST FREED FROM THE YOKE OF SPAIN

When the king of Spain was obliged to give way to liberal demands in the mother country, to abolish the hated Inquisition, to give freedom to the Press, great rejoicings took place in the colonies, and a new leader appeared on the scene—Yturbide, of Mexican blood, hitherto an officer in the Royalist army. A wide-spread revolution burst out all over the country, in which not only the insurgents took part, but many of the Spanish as well as Mexican chiefs, who declared for independence.

Yturbide hastened to meet the last governor ever sent from Spain at Vera Cruz, and soon convinced him that his services were not needed as viceroy. The outcome of their conference was the Treaty of Cordova, which settled the independence of Mexico. Yturbide made a triumphal entry into the capital at the head of the Independents, and so ended, amid scenes of wild enthusiasm and rejoicings, the Spanish rule three hundred years after the arrival of Cortes.

The present national flag, with its white for purity, green for union, red

for independence, stands for the three articles of the national faith settled at this time. The device of the eagle and serpent on a cactus bush refers to an old story connected with the settlement of the old Aztec tribes on the plateau. Many Spaniards went home now, and opinions were greatly divided among those who remained as to whether the government should be a monarchy or a republic. Yturbide, who had much love of splendor and state, as well as personal ambition, managed to have himself declared Emperor of Mexico, but only retained the position for a few months.

THE MAN WHO MADE HIMSELF EMPEROR AND WAS SENTENCED TO BE SHOT

In the end he, too, was sentenced to be shot; but when angry feeling had subsided, his faults and failings were forgotten, and his countrymen recognized that it was his act that had freed Mexico from the control of Spain. Over the house of his birthplace—he was a fellow-townsman of Morelos—is the inscription: Libertador de Mexico, meaning Liberator of Mexico.

A very confused time followed. Revolutions and different forms of constitutions and plans of government rapidly followed each other. There was one man, whose name stands out in the confusion, who was mixed up in every event of these troublous years. This was Santa Anna, first making his name as a soldier fighting in the wars of independence and expelling the Royalists from Vera Cruz, when Spain made its first and last attempt to win back Mexico. He was elected president in 1833.

It was about that time that troubles began with Texas, a district as large as France, on the Gulf of Mexico. Three hundred families had gone to colonize it from Mexico a few years before, and a large number of Americans had also settled there on grants of land. An insurrection against the oppressive Mexican government broke out, which ended in Texas becoming independent for a period of about ten years, and then it was annexed to the United States by treaty, and admitted to the union very soon after.

THE WAR BETWEEN MEXICO AND THE UNITED STATES ABOUT TEXAS

We remember how many people in the United States were against this union, because the laws of Texas allowed slavery; also many people in the States thought a war with Mexico would follow if Texas were annexed, as Mexico had never given up hope of reconquering that state. These opponents were soon seen to be right and Mexico and the United States were quickly at war. In due time, also, the annexation of so much slave country upset the balance in the United States, and brought on, some years later, the dreadful Civil War between North and South, which settled the slavery question forever.

The Mexican War did not last very long. The American troops were well armed and disciplined, and fought steadily. The Mexicans were brave, too, but the long course of revolutions had spoiled both officers and men, and they could not hold their own.

Santa Anna, through these years, had very varied experiences; at one time general in the field, then head of the Government, then in retirement at Havana, then back again to help his country when in dire straits. But his eloquence and enthusiasm, his power of raising money and troops, were all in vain. Vera Cruz was taken, beautiful Puebla, with its many colored tiles glittering in the sun, fell without a blow; even Mexico, the capital, was occupied, after the hill of Chapultepec, so connected with old Mexican history had been taken after a terrific struggle.

Santa Anna was there in the most exposed places; the brave boys of the military college on Chapultepec were there, receiving their first lesson in actual warfare. It was indeed a terrible day, with the horrid noise of war and the booming of cannon mingled with the frantic ringing of church bells in the city, encouraging the Mexicans to think that the victory was theirs. The bells were silenced when the shouts of the Americans cheered the tearing down of the old colors and the running up of the new on the stronghold, the ancient hill of Chapultepec. This was practically the end of the Mexican war.

England and Spain soon withdrew their remonstrances, but Napoleon III, wishing for military glory, managed to set up a European prince, Maximilian of Austria brother of the Emperor Francis Joseph, as Emperor of Mexico, to be supported by the arms of France. His short reign of three years is indeed a tragic story. With his young and charming wife, Maximilian set up a gay court in the beautiful palace, restored and furnished in grand style, on the famous hill of Chapultepec.

The National Museum in the city close by holds the heavy silver plate, the great glass coach, and many other

MAXIMILIAN BEFORE HIS EXECUTION

After peace had come to the long-distracted country, there was a short time of quiet, when reforms were beginning to take effect, and then troubles and quarrels broke out again. These were bad enough for three European powers to make them an excuse for interference.

gorgeous reminders of the brilliant days that passed like a dream, with dinners, dances, and fêtes under the fine trees and among the wealth of sweet roses. The native President Juarez withdrew on Maximilian's entry to the north of Mexico, and bided his time.

Suddenly there came a crash. There had been civil war in the United States while Napoleon III made his schemes, and the Americans were fully occupied for a time. As soon as it was over, they hastened to remind France that the countries of Europe had no right to interfere with the nations of the American continent, and that they could not recognize a monarchy in Mexico. Napoleon was afraid to venture on a war with the United States, so he was compelled to withdraw the help in money and soldiers he had promised to Maximilian, to keep him on the throne which he had persuaded him to accept.

AN EMPRESS WHO LOST HER REASON AND AN INVENTOR WHO LOST HIS THRONE

The poor Empress Carlotta rushed off to Europe to try what personal pleading would do with Napoleon and with the Pope, but she failed to move either. The strain and sorrow of it sent her out of her mind, and she never recovered. Maximilian refused to give up the throne or to leave the country. He was taken prisoner and shot.

As the French left the country, and the empire they had created drew to its tragic end, one of the greatest of Mexican statesmen was making his way to the front. This was General Porfirio Diaz, who took possession of the capital for the Liberals in 1867. Less than a month later the patient, long-enduring Juarez entered it in solemn state. Four years after the death of Juarez, Santa Anna died, poor, blind, and neglected. Though possessing great bravery and military skill, he had always been turbulent and difficult, and often did his country harm instead of good.

Diaz became president first in 1877 and held many long terms of office thereafter, working hard and successfully for the benefit of his country. He, too, lived at Chapultepec, and looked down from the cypress shade on the beautiful wide view, on the lakes and distant volcanoes, whose snowy tops blush rosy red in the sunset, and on the city spreading in every direction. Many were the reforms and schemes for improvements that he carried through. Strenuous were the efforts he made to pay off debts, to extend trade and industries, to improve the water supply, to make the most of the rich soil and fine climate, the vast space and rich minerals with which Mexico is blessed.

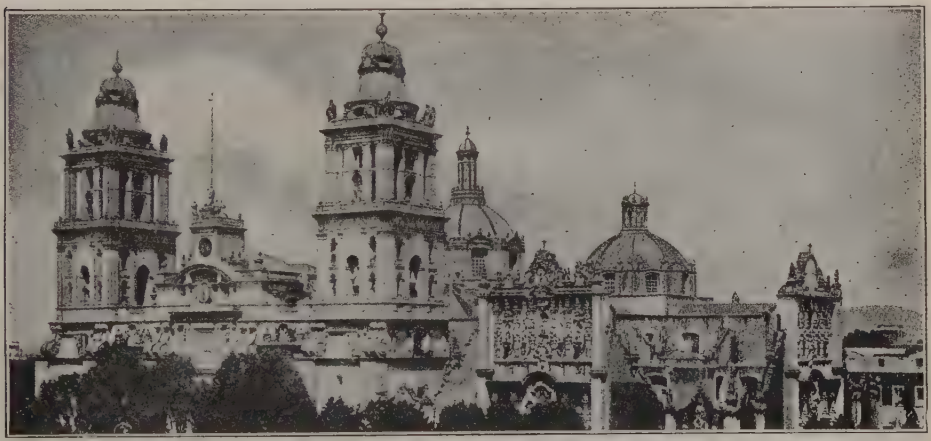
HOW THE TRAIN NOW RUNS ALONG THE ROAD WHERE CORTES LED HIS ARMY

Railways now connect the United States with Mexico, and the iron horse climbs the romantic route of Cortes and his train, from the coast to the plateau, by means of most difficult engineering. A great line is also built across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, connecting the Atlantic and Pacific and lines also cross the other isthmuses of Central America. Spanish rule lasted in Central America for about three centuries, and was thrown off about one hundred years ago. Several independent republics have since been formed: Guatemala and Nicaragua, Honduras, Costa Rica, Salvador, and Panama. The youngest of these republics, is Panama which is about the size of Ireland. The productions of these countries are very like those of Mexico; the governments are not yet so settled. Both earthquakes and revolutions are very common occurrences in Central America.

There is already a railway across the narrowest isthmus—Panama—but the need was so great for ships to pass direct from one ocean to the other that for many years the United States was engaged in excavating a canal to unite the two oceans which was finally completed in May, 1914.

NOTABLE EXAMPLES OF MEXICAN BUILDINGS

This building on a rocky hill surrounded by cypress trees is the palace of Chapultepec, and was formerly the home of Mexico's rulers. It stands on the site of Montezuma's palace and is now used as government offices.



The splendid cathedral in Mexico City was begun in 1573 and was completed 84 years later. Its walls alone cost $2,000,000, and inside there are twenty separate chapels.

The National Palace in the City of Mexico, which has sheltered nearly all of Mexico's rulers. Here lived Cortes, the original conqueror of Mexico, and the ill-fated Maximilian. Over the main entrance is hung the Liberty Bell of Mexico.

The population of Mexico is estimated at about 14 million people. Of these only about two million are white people of Spanish blood. Of the remainder about half are full-blooded Indians, and the other half are *mestizos* or persons of mixed white and Indian blood. The poor Indians and *mestizos* are called peons, and only about 10 per cent of them can read and write.

The Mexican Constitution was copied from that of the United States in 1857, but has never been seriously followed. A genuine republic requires for success a body of citizens that at least can read and write. Mexico has failed as a republic largely because of this lack of popular education.

On the coast the climate is almost unendurably hot, but as you go towards the interior the land rises, and in such cities as Guadalajara, San Luis Potosi and Puebla, there is a climate of perpetual spring; while on some of the mountains of the interior snow stands the whole year. Tropical fruits are found in abundance, but hardy northern vegetation, like apples and potatoes, do not flourish.

MEXICAN RACES AND CUSTOMS

As the language of Mexico is Spanish, so the habits and manners of the people are those of Old Spain. In some of the small pueblos, or towns, you will come across scenes and customs that seem taken from Cervantes' famous novel, *Don Quixote*, written three hundred years ago. The people in general have the characteristics of those who live in gardens, being careless and gay, but self-centered and improvident. Moreover, they have suffered from outside influences and from the demoralizing atmosphere created by centuries of oppression.

The Mexican belongs to one of three great classes. Either he is an Indian, belonging to one of the many tribes that inhabited Mexico when Cortes, overthrew the power of the Montezumas, or he is half-breed, *mestizo*—that is to say, an Indian with a strain of white, commonly Spanish, blood in his veins; or he is a "white man." The old "white" Mexican families whose escutcheon is free from Indian blood are few indeed, so that the European inhabitants, at best only about one-sixth of the total population, are composed of foreign immigrants, adventurers and business men, who move across the picturesque stage of Mexican life and add to its brilliancy. Their civilization is thoroughly Spanish, as are their customs of courtship, marriage, etc.

The Mexican Indian must not be confounded with the American Indian as we know him in the pages of Fenimore Cooper. The Iroquois and Arapahoes were warriors and hunters whose fate it has been to disappear as factors in the life of the United States. The Mexican Indian, on the other hand, being essentially a peaceful tiller of the soil, has continued his vocation in spite of oppression, down to the present day. He is the backbone of the nation, representing almost 50 per cent of the population, and, when educated, will be the preponderant factor in Mexican life.

Dress varies with him according to the climes—here tropical, there temperate or cold—but always brilliant with gaudy colors and flashing with silver ornament. The essentials, with variations and additions, are the *zarape*, a multi-colored blanket that serves many purposes, and the *rebozo*, a broad scarf or shawl of blue, yellow or violet, which is worn over the head and shoulders, dropping in graceful

INTERIOR COURT OF A MEXICAN HOME

This shows the home of a cultivated Mexican of the better class.

A LENTEN PENANCE

Lent is the great season for doing penance, and native women often ascend the Sacre Monte, Amecamica, on their knees, wearing crowns of thorns.

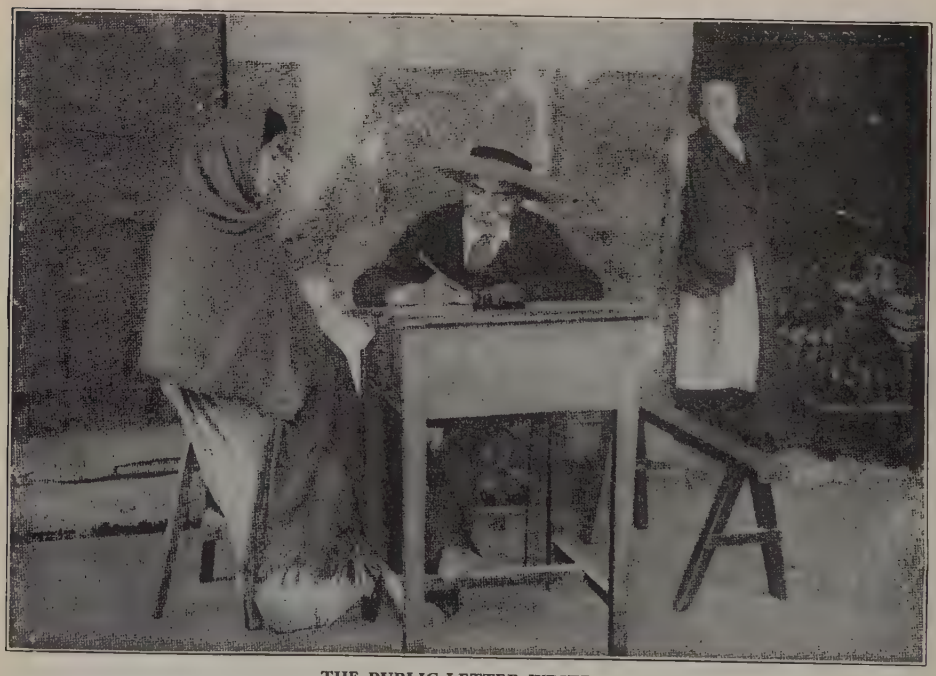
folds and, as often as not, being caught up over the arm. The Indian women throughout the country go barefooted, many of the men, however, indulging in twist and hemp sandals.

In matters of this life, the descendants of the Aztecs and Mayas and kindred tribes are frankly materialist; in matters beyond the pale of their understanding, they are both superstitious and idolatrous. Their religion is nominally that of the Roman Catholic Church, but it is, to a very large extent, the continuation of Aztec and Maya lore. Religious processions have been abolished by the Government, but they still exist in the country, in small Indian villages, built of bamboo huts thatched with palm-leaves. And they are quaint, if noisy. A band, of drum and fife, heads the procession, and is followed by the pious who carry weird, cabalistic figures of colored paper held aloft on long poles. What their meaning is nobody knows and nobody cares. They are taken as a vital accompaniment to a religion that is mumbled to them in Latin; they form an integral part of that which they apostrophize as *costumbre* (habit), against which let no man raise his hand. If they only knew it, these weird figures date from the days of their ancestors before the Conquest. It is the same with their votive offerings of flowers—sacred to that strange man-god who lives as Quetzalcoatl—which are to be found on every roadside shrine (erected to a Virgin of Sorrow or Tears, most likely on the spot where before stood a pagan altar), in village churches and city cathedrals.

HOLIDAYS AND FEASTS OF COLOR

Their offerings prove their love of flowers, and so do their flower-holidays, those gorgeous feasts of color in April on Viga Canal near Mexico City, when

AN AMATEUR BULL FIGHT



THE PUBLIC LETTER-WRITER

The evangelista, or public letter-writer, is to be met in all market-places throughout the country, and his art is highly appreciated by the illiterate lover, anxious to give poetical expression to his or her feelings.

HOLY WATER CARRIERS

Holy water carriers or Agua Prieta fill their vessels at the fountain blessed by the Church prior to the celebrations of Easter Day. A ban has recently been placed by the Government on Church processions, without, however affecting the religious fervor of the Mexicans.

the Aztec *chinampas*, or floating gardens, are a mass of bloom and Quetzalcoatl is frankly worshiped as the God of Nature.

The Flight to Egypt is celebrated every year with great ceremony during the *novena*, or nine days, preceding Christmas, and called *las posadas*, or inn, in commemoration of the inn at Bethlehem. A certain house is chosen by a family or group of friends as the scene for the festivity. This consists of a torchlight procession through the house, accompanied by the singing of a litany, to a room where admission is asked for Joseph and Mary. On obtaining an affirmative answer the demonstrators open the door, and deposit therein the wax figures of Joseph and the Virgin. A return is then made to the dining room, where carousing is indulged in for the remainder of the night. The same performance is repeated eight consecutive nights. On the ninth, however, the figure of Our Saviour as a child is added to the group, and on the following day the *pinata*, a hanging, tinseled jar with streamers, which takes the place of our Christmas tree, is broken and the presents which it contains are scrambled for by the children.

In their relation to each other, the sexes are strangely matter of fact in the lower, or Indian and *mestizo*, class. In the middle and upper classes, the romance of flashing black eyes, seen in a balcony or behind the *reja*, is identical with the customs of Old Spain, even to the röle played by the fan, the discreet go-between and the patient "bear" twirling his moustache at the street corner, and making weird signs with a cigarette that are only comprehensible to one pair of eyes.

LIFE'S ROMANCE FOR THE INDIAN MAIDEN

Among the Indians, on the other hand, the romance of life is the outburst of a passion. At fourteen the average girl is already married or mated, for marriage itself is not an essential. Those who can afford it, marry; those who cannot, tie their own hymeneal knot. It is true that since the Government has made it a law that only marriage in the registry office is legal, and that Church marriage by itself is illegal, the celebration is within reach of all. But the Indians in their villages know nothing of laws, and believe the *cura* who tells them that only the vows taken in Church are binding. The result is that, knowing nothing about the one, and not being able to afford the other, the ceremony is apt to be dispensed with. This laxity is partly explained, moreover, by that obtaining in the preconquest days, when the act of cohabitation was in itself binding.

Apart from this laxity, however, the union is in every way a moral one, inasmuch as it is not taken by the man as an excuse to escape any responsibility with which he may have shouldered himself. It might, as a matter of fact, be more to the point to speak of the woman in these terms, for hers are the responsibilities and the work. She labors in the fields and labors at home, spins the fiber of the agave and grinds the corn for the *tortillas* or flat cakes that are the staple nourishment of the population and are always homemade. She does the washing on the bank of the river, looks after the bairns, and goes to market, both to buy and sell. She squats in her booth —four poles and two mattings, one for her wares and one for shelter from the sun—and sings her wares; the while the man, an inveterate smoker of cigarettes, lounges about. The red flag hung out at a shop window tells him where fresh *pulque* is to be had, and off he goes, perhaps to be joined later by his wife, who smokes and

drinks as well as he. Or, instead, she may go to consult the *curandera*, the witch, who plays as important a part in her life as the curate.

There is no antagonism between sorcery and Church to the native mind; one is rather complementary to the other. The sign of the cross will, to all intents and purposes, keep away the Evil Eye; so will the *curandera's* potion. Therefore, argues the Indian woman, with both weapons she is doubly armed. Perhaps she is jealous of her husband, and surely the *curandera's* recipe will render prayers more efficacious. Besides, the witch is more human than mumbled Latin, and, an adept in the lore of her race, she touches superstitious chords that have slumbered since Guatemotzin, the last of the Aztec kings, whose memory is wildly feted each year by the Indians, went on his long journey. Consequently her sway is an important one and in her favor be it said that she is learned in the secrets of medicinal plants, as were her forbears, and that, if lives have been lost through her folly, tragedies wrought through her machinations, and thousands fooled by following her ridiculous instructions, many more have had their ailments cured by her simple methods.

Where superstition—and it is natural in Mexico as compared with other countries—thrives, the magic arts thrive also, and Mexico is no exception. The birth of a child—otherwise an unimportant event in the life of an unspoiled people—is the occasion for the astrologer, amateur or otherwise, for the seller of charms that will make the boy a happy man in his time and the girl an uncomplaining mother. The next step is to take the offspring to the church to be baptized. Even if the father and mother are not married, the child must be baptized, cost what it may, and *peones* (native laborers)

A TEHUANTEPEC WOMAN

The national costume consists of a brilliant-colored skirt and a huipili, or sleeveless bodice, to which is attached a starched lace ruffle, which either stands erect as in the picture or is dropped on the shoulders.

are frequently to be met on the highway with a babe in their arms, on their way to the nearest church. This is the father's first duty, and he never shirks it. As for the mother, she is, as are her kind, passionately fond of her child, especially if it be a boy, and, unless she has a daughter old enough to toddle around with the child on her back, the baby will never leave her, being slung across her back and held in place by the *rebozo* when she works or walks. As soon as the child is able to talk, it is taught a prayer, and gradually the mother imparts to it her stock of traditions and legends, miracles and religion, which go to make up the child's knowledge of the unseen wonders of the world. With such an

education the preservation of old Aztec traditions and lore is assured for generations to come.

Death but a momentary shadow

The shadow of death casts but a passing gloom over the Mexican, and the bones of the dead, except in cases where special payment has been made to the Church, are not allowed to lie longer than a couple of years in the ground. Among the poorer classes the coffin is merely a convenient receptacle for transporting the body to the Campo Santo, and is consequently hired from the undertaker for the occasion. The chanting of a mass is, however, indispensable, and votive offerings of flowers, instead of candles, to the particular saint of the locality are an essential feature of the mourning ceremonies, which include the wearing of black or purple, the servants among the richer classes donning similar garbs of somber hue. In lonely villages, untroubled since the days of the Conquest, Aztec rites, it would appear, are indulged in by the Indians, even to the sacrificing of dogs, chickens, etc. The latter are, together with turkeys, frequently sacrificed in some weird and perhaps disgusting fashion by the witch, the *curandera*, to counteract the ever-dreaded influence of the Evil Eye—the Great Bad One—who is specially active at the time of childbirth and when illness is in the house.

Mystic dances of the Mexican

The Mexican's chief amusements are music, singing and dancing, the almost national dance being the *jarabe*. There are also many mystic dances, a mixture of Church and Aztec lore, reminiscent of the early days of the Spanish occupation. These are danced, with the accompaniment of drum, fife, and masks, at stated times of the year, and vary according to locality. In the far-away south the *danza de la conquista*, showing Aztecs overawed by the arrival of the white man, is among the most characteristic. The *fiestas* of the Church, as are the patronymic or saints' days of relatives and friends, are also feted gleefully by the population—dancing, gambling, cock-fighting and the bull-fight being the leading amusements. As regards cock-fighting, the bull-fight, and *baraja* (cards), all of Spanish origin, they have become essentially national. After the *cura* (village priest) and the *curandera*, the agent exercising the greatest influence on the life of the Mexican is *pulque*. This national drink is made from the agave, a plant resembling a huge aloe, which, cut at the right time, gives forth a honey-like fluid. Treated with *madre de pulque* and allowed to ferment, it produces a strong-smelling liquor, to drink which the Mexican will spend his last centavos. Too generous libations—and they are frequent—produce a dull kind of intoxication. The *pulqueria*, where it is sold, is an interesting establishment, and it is here that many a fleeting glance of Mexican life can be obtained by the traveler in Mexico.

MEXICO AND CENTRAL AMERICA, THE LINK THAT JOINS TWO CONTINENTS

FAVORITE PASTIME IN THE "LAND OF TO-MORROW"

PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS AT OTTAWA

CANADA—THE LADY OF THE WHITE SNOW

FROM the June day, hundreds of years ago, on which John Cabot landed on "New-found-land," Canada has grown step by step into a mighty Dominion stretching from sea to sea. It is a nation within a nation, strong and prosperous in itself, and yet a part of the great British Empire.

Though hundreds of years before the time of Cabot the wild Norsemen had found their way to the American shores, the first to actually claim the land in the name of a sovereign power of Europe was Cabot himself. Where he landed he planted a cross with the arms of England carved upon it. The flag of England fluttered out to the sound of an English cheer as the brave sailor claimed the land for Henry VII, King of England and France, and lord of Ireland.

Cabot called the country St. John's Land, because he first came there on St. John's Day. The exact spot is not known, but it is thought to have been on the shores of Newfoundland.

After staying a little time, Cabot and his men set sail again, and turned their vessel homeward. The country that they had found seemed fertile and fruitful. But it was not the land of gold and spice, of gems and silken riches which they had hoped to find. So they returned with empty hands, and but little guessing upon what a vast continent they had planted the flag of England. They returned, little knowing that the people of England would carry that flag across the continent to the sea beyond, and that in days to come state should be added to state till the great Dominion of Canada was formed.

But although Cabot returned with empty hands, the King of England received him kindly. He was, however, "a king wise but not lavish." Indeed, he liked but little to spend his gold. So as a reward he gave Cabot

£10. It does not seem much, even when we remember that £10 then was worth as much as £120 now. Still, Cabot had a good time with it. He dressed himself in silk and grandeur, and walked about the streets, followed by crowds who came to stare and wonder at the man who had found "a new isle." Later, the king gave Cabot £20 a year. Not much more is known about his life, but it is thought that he, with his son Sebastian, sailed again—perhaps more than once—to the "Isle beyond the Seas."

Years passed on. England did little more than plant her flag in the New World, as the lands beyond the seas came to be called. Now and again indeed the English tried to found colonies. But the settlers sickened and died, and the attempts failed. Sir Humphrey Gilbert, half-brother of the famous Raleigh, was among the gallant captains who sailed the seas and claimed strange lands in the name of the great Queen Elizabeth. He landed upon the shores of New-foundland—the island which is still called by that name today. There he set up the royal arms of England, and, with solemn ceremony, taking a handful of soil in his hand, Sir Humphrey declared the land to be the possession of Elizabeth, Queen by the Grace of God.

So Newfoundland became a British possession, and thus claims to be the oldest of the British colonies.

How a Breton Sailor Came to Canada

It was in the reign of Henry VIII, when the country was in a turmoil as to who should be the head of the Church, and distracted monks were being turned out of their monasteries, that Cartier, a French explorer, having braved the Atlantic, sailed on and on, day after day, up the St. Lawrence, nearly 1000 miles in all, through forests glowing like gold in their autumn colors.

What courage and determination to face the lonely solitudes, till at last the red man and the white man met! No doubt both were equally alarmed and surprised at the other's appearance.

The Red Man and the White Man Meet in the Lonely Solitudes

"They must be Indians," said Cartier, as Columbus had said before him of the natives he met much further south. Both discoverers jumped to the conclusion that they had found the desired short way to the rich countries of the East, across the western ocean, little dreaming that the whole great continent of America and the Pacific Ocean lay between. Cartier describes how the "Indians" thronged round him and his sailors, wild with delight, like pleased children, and brought presents for their pale-faced visitors.

Before long, other French explorers followed. Montreal and Quebec were founded, and traders and missionaries pushed up the splendid waterways far into the interior, to get the valuable furs the Indian hunters had to sell, and to teach and civilize these wild men of the woods and forests.

For unknown centuries various tribes of the copper-colored natives, with their fine features and long, straight, black hair, had roamed at will over the wide continent, spending their time in hunting and fishing, and in fighting tribe against tribe. They have no history, no remains to tell of the far past, nothing but stories handed down from lip to lip, and a few circles of stones half buried in the earth.

It was not long before disputes arose between these old inhabitants and the French newcomers, and for long years there was ever renewed fighting, in which the red men had to give way more and yet more to the white men.

Emigrants came out by degrees from France to settle in the new colonies on

the banks of the river, and on the peninsula at its mouth which they called Acadia.

As time went on, the English felt that they wanted to do more in these regions than fish on the Newfoundland banks, and brave sailors tried again and again to find the Northwest Passage to the Indies, which they felt sure lay among the icebergs and snows of the Arctic Ocean.

THE BRAVE MEN WHO GAVE THEIR LIVES TO BUILD UP CANADA LONG AGO

The names of many of them lie scattered over the map of the north of Canada; too often they never reached England again, but died of hunger and cold in the white North.

A very pathetic picture comes to us from the days of James I, when Henry Hudson made three voyages in search of the desired passage, and discovered the great bay which bears his name. (See story of Henry Hudson.)

Some fifty years later, when Charles II was king, he gave to his nephew Rupert large grants of land round the shores of Hudson's Bay and power to form a company to trade in furs. Many rich men put their money together and built ships to carry goods out from England, and furs back from the Great Land of the White Snow. They also built forts in every direction, as more and more land was granted to them, to protect their clerks and traders and trappers.

They were exciting and stirring days then. Soon there was rivalry between the French Canadians and the English fur traders, and the Indians took sides; but it was all for gain, not for love of country.

How these visions of the past rise up before us as we study the map of today! There are the difficult-looking Indian place-names scattered all over the country, reminding us of those hardy hunters and trappers, of their swiftness of foot, endurance in following a trail, indifference to human life or suffering when on the war-path. We seem to see them hiding behind trees, shooting down the rivers in their canoes of bark, camping before the forts of the white men, who did much to ruin their lives by giving them "fire-water" to drink.

THE THRILLING TALES OF OLDEN DAYS AND BATTLES LONG AGO

The names of the forts—those of the French and also those of the Hudson Bay Company's—still remain to speak of the loneliness of these distant stations, where a few people lived to look after things and collect furs to send on to Europe. Many are the thrilling stories of those days; of a girl of fourteen who held a fort for a week against Indians; of seventeen young Frenchmen—their names are in an old parish register at Montreal—who, with five friendly natives, held at bay for five days 12,000 Iroquois Indians about to descend on Montreal and Quebec. They all lost their lives, but they saved the colony for France. The numerous French names all over the map recall those days when France had not only settled many villages, towns, and forts in Canada, but claimed the whole continent from Mexico to the Arctic, except the strip of Atlantic coast, some 200 miles in width, which then belonged to England.

The French bent all their energies to prevent these colonies of the coast extending west. They built forts to keep them back, and begged for enough soldiers from home to drive the English back and cure them of all wish to return.

HOW CANADA PASSED FROM THE FRENCH TO THE BRITISH IN A NIGHT AND A DAY

No wonder they were feeling anxious about their power. The Hudson Bay Company had been extending their

territory in the North, and after Marlborough's wars Acadia had been given up to England and renamed Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. Many disbanded English soldiers then settled there, and Halifax was founded, which has a splendid harbor free from ice. How the French settlers were expelled from the beautiful country they loved so much, and how their troubles and wanderings ended, is all told in Longfellow's poem "Evangeline."

And now we come to the year when the struggle between France and England for the mastery in North America was decided. The preparations had been long and tedious, and the young General Wolfe was bitterly out of heart. We read under the French and Indian war how he had been sent to Quebec, and at last decided to make a night attack, and led his men up the steep rock which defended the town. The result of that noiseless climb, and the battle on the Plains of Abraham next day, was that Canada passed from the French to the English, for the forts and villages were too widely scattered to be able to join together and resist.

How French and British live happily side by side in the great Dominion

The French Canadians, living contentedly under their ancient religion, laws, and customs, have proved themselves to be among the most loyal sons of the British Empire. They did not join the American colonists when they separated from Great Britain and formed themselves into the United States, some twenty years after Wolfe took Quebec. Many of the Americans who wished to remain under the old flag passed into Canada, where they were known as Loyalists. For about a hundred years these old French provinces were all the Canada there was, and they slowly filled up with Scotchmen, as we can see from the names on the map, as well as Irish and English. The Hudson Bay Company threw out its forts as far as Vancouver, and British Columbia began to attract settlers. They had a long and difficult journey to get there.

Then came the opening up of the rich corn belt of land that lies between the Great Lakes and the ranches of the Rockies, and the laying of the long steel lines that bind the West to the East. Back in the year 1867 Quebec, Ontario, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia united to form the "Dominion." Then the northwest territories were purchased from the Hudson Bay Company. Two years after that the province of Manitoba was added, then Columbia and Prince Edward Island; afterwards the district on the Klondike where gold was found, and then Saskatchewan, Alberta, and other provinces near them.

The St. Lawrence River the great front door of Canada

Today Canada is thirty times larger than the British Isles and has a population more than twice the size of that of Ireland.

Its great front door is the splendid St. Lawrence River, carrying more water into the sea than any other river in the world except one. In winter this front door is closed fast by ice and then the steamers from Europe and America land passengers at Halifax, in Nova Scotia, or at some other port on the eastern shores where trains are waiting to carry them to where they wish to go.

If we should undertake a journey through this great empire in summer, the fine old city of Quebec would be an admirable starting point. Here we pass through what was once the heart of Greater France, the old province of Quebec. The Gibraltar of the New World, the town of Quebec.

QUEBEC, SHOWING DUFFERIN TERRACE AND THE CHATEAU FRONTENAC

towers far above the St. Lawrence River and a journey from there to Montreal by one of the palatial steamers, is one of the most delightful in the world.

Here at Montreal, a magnificent city of more than half a million people, we may begin an all rail pilgrimage across the continent. A truly wonderful line of railway it is that has opened up the New Canada and linked the Atlantic with the Pacific; and this great railway line links, let us remember, not only the two oceans, for behind the Atlantic is the old world, and beyond the Pacific is the Far East.

Traveling into the great lone land beyond the lakes

If we leave Montreal on Sunday morning, we eat, sleep, live in the train till Thursday night, and in that time we travel nearly three thousand miles to the shores of the Pacific. Till the main railways and their branches opened up the Great Lone Land beyond the lakes, and made it possible for people to travel in it and find out its great uses, this vast stretch of land was looked upon as good only for the hunter to roam over. Little was known about it except from the stories of adventurous travelers.

For twenty-four hours after leaving Montreal we pass through Ontario, the richest and most thickly peopled province in Canada. One of its most striking features is the group of five great lakes, all drained by the St. Lawrence. Lake Superior is large enough to hold Ireland; it is the largest body of fresh water in the world. Its waters connect with those of Michigan and Huron, and these, again with Erie and Ontario. No wonder the St. Lawrence River carries such a volume of water. Canals have been made where waterfalls and rapids prevent the passage of boats, so that there is continuous waterway for lake steamers for 1000 miles above Montreal, from Port Arthur on the farthest lake.

Western Ontario, north of Lake Superior and Minnesota is one of the few remaining sections of the country where one can still find the primeval

wilderness. It is the home of the *real* Indian, not the Indian of the motion picture shown on the one hand, or on the other, of the civilized Indian who poses as a "child of the forest," and proceeds to extract money from gullible tourists. It is the home of big game, for here the Canadian government has its game preserves—the Ontario Game Reserve, the Quetico Reserve and others. Here one can travel for weeks in a canoe and see hundreds of moose, deer, foxes and bears.

This region stretches 400 miles long and 200 miles wide. Until the Canadian Northern was completed, there was no method of communication except by canoe and snowshoe. It was in this country that a whole army was lost for months during one of the early Indian wars.

It is a country of thousands of lakes, for here are the sources of the Hudson Bay and Superior waters. Through this region run innumerable Indian and canoe trails; here we also find the old Dawson trail, the first white man's trail, made in the early part of the nineteenth century.

In this Rainy Lake district, this lakeland, the wilderness is making its last stand against the steady march of civilization. Here we still find the trapper, the voyageur, the forest ranger and the ever present frontier police.

Canada Shares the Glory of One of the Great Wonders of the World

A busy scene it is, with ships passing to and fro, for there are great ports on the United States side of the lakes, as well as on the Canadian side. The two countries also share one of the greatest wonders in the world between the lakes Erie and Ontario. There is a drop of some 300 feet between these two lakes, half of which is taken at one mighty plunge by the river which connects them. An island parts the immense volume of water into two falls. It is hard for us to realize the grandeur of the Falls of Niagara without actually beholding them. Imagine two great masses of water about three quarters of a mile broad, madly leaping down a height as great as that of the Capitol Dome, at Washington, the spray and foam rebounding in clouds as if the water were trying to find its way back to the top. No picture can give the thundering roar, nor the colors of the whole scene.

The tongue of land called the Lake Peninsula, lying between Lake Erie and Lake Ontario on the one side, and Lake Huron on the other, is part of the rich province of Ontario. Here many English have settled, making fine farms where the forest has been gradually cleared away. Great quantities of fruit, butter, and cheese find their way to the markets of the world from this fertile country. Many manufacturing towns, too, are to be found, and Toronto is a great center of trade.

The Great Forests That Make Canada Prosperous and Beautiful

The glory of the autumn woods of Ontario are far-famed, with their sunset colors on miles and miles of fine trees. Thousands of men are at work in these forests, cutting down trees and starting the logs and planks on their far journey into other parts of the world. They work in the winter, living in camps, and the noise of the axes, the hauling of the sledges piled up with logs over the frozen snow, turn the lonely forest into a lively, inspiriting scene. When the rivers melt in the spring, the waters carry the logs down the stream, and the force of water in falls and rapids is turned to account for working the saw and pulp mills.

A great deal of the lumber collects at Ottawa, the capital of the Dominion, where the Governor-General lives; and on a fine hill are the Parliament

CANADA IN SUMMER AND IN WINTER

This is a summer scene by a lake in the Canadian Rockies. Canada has colder winters than ours, but the summer is better than ours, and the air purer. Grapes, peaches, melons and tomatoes ripen in Canada in the open air.

Winter is really winter in Canada. This is a winter scene in Montreal. In Canada the thermometer goes down 20 degrees or more below freezing point, but people then expect that degree of cold and prepare for it. The air is so dry and bracing that the cold weather is not nearly so trying as in lower temperatures of damp and mist. Snow-shoes and sleighs and toboggans make Canadian winter days merry for young people.

HOW THE TIMBER LOGS FLOAT FOR HUNDREDS OF MILES FROM THE FORESTS TO THE MILLS

A SHEEP RANCH ON THE GREAT PRAIRIES OF WESTERN CANADA

LOADING SALMON IN BRITISH COLUMBIA, FROM WHERE MILLIONS OF TINS OF SALMON COME

Canada is rich in minerals, in forests for timber, in land for herds of cattle and flocks of sheep and crops of all sorts: and her rivers teem with fish. These three scenes show something of Canada's wealth At the top is a mass of timber roughly cut up into the logs from the forests, floating for hundreds of miles along the rivers to the saw-mills. Next we have a view of a sheep farm which a few years ago was a wild prairie. The third shows us a picture of the salmon-fishing industry. The waters of British Columbia are the home of so many fish that she can spare nearly 1,500,000 cases of salmon. containing many millions of tins, every year.

Buildings. Each province has a small Parliament of its own to attend to its own affairs, and all are represented in the one great Parliament at Ottawa, which manages those matters in which the whole country is interested. The Governor-General is sent out from England to represent the King.

SHINING RAILS THAT CARRY US INTO THE LARGEST WHEATFIELD IN THE WORLD

But the train has been ever speeding west while we have been talking of the wonders of Ontario; and now for many hours it rushes along the northern shores of Lake Superior, often in sight of its wide waters and the piers and wharves of its ports.

From Ontario we pass into Manitoba, once a lonely prairie land, but now growing rapidly into the largest wheatfield in the world. Think of all the large wheatfields you have seen, put together and added to, until they are hundreds of times bigger than the biggest, and you will gain some idea of these boundless level fields of grain, stretching like the sea out to the far-distant horizon, under the whole great arch of the sky. As the train throbs on and on, hour after hour, it seems like a great living conqueror, so completely has the presence of the shining rails changed the face of the country. The deer and buffaloes are gone, and the hunting Indians who lived on them have almost gone, too. Here and there are the Reserve Lands where they put up their tents and live with their fast little ponies.

They are urged to learn to work and to farm, and their children are taught in schools and are helped with food and clothing. Now that the buffaloes are gone which they used to hunt, and which provided them with nearly everything they needed, they must learn to live as white men do, or suffer great want and wretchedness.

THE CHANGE THAT HAS COME OVER THE INDIANS SINCE THE WHITE MEN CAME

One feels very sorry for the Indians, who have changed greatly since the white men first set foot on the banks of the St. Lawrence River, about 500 years ago. Now the "Pale Faces" have come in thousands, brought by the great iron horse. Setting up their homesteads, they plow, sow, reap, and carry the precious food for the millions in hungry Europe, and when time serves they build bridges and make railway lines as these things are needed. Winnipeg, the capital of this wonderful country, was but a small outpost fort a few years ago; now it is a large, handsome city. At the stations in this part of the line are the tall elevators, rising like lighthouses out of a billowy sea, in which the wheat is cleaned and stored till it is taken away by train.

But the train, like an unwearied giant, thunders along, till at last the great level wheat lands are left behind, and the country changes, rising in slopes covered with fine, juicy grass, spangled with many-colored flowers. Two huge provinces are passed, chiefly given up to ranching, where cowboys —wonderful riders—look after great herds of cattle and horses. Towns are springing up, and fresh lines of rails like giant fingers stretch over the land to serve the newly-made farms.

Then the country grows wilder, and at last the Rocky Mountains are in sight. Now, indeed, the train seems like a courageous live creature, plunging fearlessly into dark valleys, over roaring torrents, around the edges of steep precipices, through inky-black tunnels.

THROUGH THE WILD ROCKY MOUNTAINS TO BRITISH COLUMBIA

At its highest point the line reaches the height of nearly five thousand feet, and above us tower the white

peaks and glaciers of the highest Rockies, over 12,000 feet above sea level. Three ranges have to be crossed. People often stay to enjoy the splendid scenery, for there are fine hotels, and a grand national park, 26 miles long and 10 miles wide.

But our journey is nearing its end, and the train rushes through the valley of the Fraser River, and at last pulls up at the Pacific end of the line at Vancouver, the capital of the most western province of British Columbia. This mountainous province has an area of more than 380,000 square miles. Since the railway joined it to the East, many more people have gone to live in it; and it grows more and trades more every year. Its natural riches are of every kind: coal and other minerals, and fish, especially salmon, in the rivers and on the fiord-like coasts. In the forests are the far-famed Douglas firs, often 300 feet high. All kinds of fruit ripen in the fine farms here, especially pears; and great quantities of fruit are exported annually from this part of Canada.

THE COLD AND DREARY LAND OF GOLD AND THE ISLAND OF NEWFOUNDLAND

A branch of the great railway line runs up to Dawson City, on the Klondike, near the Territory of Alaska. This is the farthest north that the railway goes in Canada; it was needed in this case, because gold was found in this cold, dreary region.

If we were to look at the map of America north of the United States. The whole of this immense stretch of the mainland, together with the islands in the three oceans that border it, make up British North America, slightly larger than the United States, rather less than Europe.

The island of Newfoundland, nearly as large as England without Wales, stands like a sentinel at the great front door to Canada. This island is not yet part of Canada. It is larger than Ireland, and depends on the fisheries of its coasts, chiefly on the banks, where the water is shallow, as in the North Sea. Now, however, great paper-mills are being set up in Newfoundland, and the newspapers that the boys and girls of today will read when they grow up may be made from trees grown in Newfoundland.

THE NATURAL WEALTH THAT IS BEING DEVELOPED IN ALL PARTS OF CANADA

It was the fish, fur, and timber that were first valued in Canada; later were discovered the suitability of its soil and climate for raising stock, for farming, for fruit and wheat growing. The riches hidden under the soil next attracted attention, and now, as the population grows, manufactures of all kinds are starting to use Nature's gifts, and supply the needs of the people.

If we try to see before us a picture of the wealth of Canada, there is the blazing yellow of the corn, the glow of rosy apples and ripe fruit, the golden butter and cheese, the silvery salmon. These, with the grand woods of the forest trees, in shiny glossiness or in powdery pulp for paper, all stand out in splendid profusion from the land of the maple leaf and the beaver.

It was in the year 1759 that Montcalm and Wolfe laid down their lives at Quebec, and the French speech and appearance of more than a million people in old Canada, as well as their picturesque towns and villages, make the old days seem very real.

Perhaps, as we think over the immense changes brought about since those old days, we shall find it hardest of all to realize that most of them are so very recent, for it is not yet 50 years since railways began to draw together places at vast distances from each other, and open up trade and travel.

©INTERNATIONAL
SPANISH MONUMENT IN BUENOS AIRES
School children passing in review before the President on the "Day of the Race," October 12th.

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PRESIDENT AND HIS CABINET
Buenos Aires, Argentina

BEYOND PANAMA INTO SOUTH AMERICA

Photographs by Field Museum of Natural History, except as noted

THE president of one of the South American republics recently said to a citizen of the United States, "Although members of the same family, we are relatives who are very little acquainted with one another." This states a very real situation that exists and which should be changed. The great continent to the south of us, the land that shares with us the name given to the western world by Americus Vespuchius, should have more than the hasty attention we usually give it. We should read a whole book on South America or indeed a volume on each country of this great region beyond the Panama Canal.

DOWN THE WEST COAST

In our trip we can go through the canal which incidentally saves us some thousands of miles in traveling from New York to the countries of the west coast. As all but two of the republics are on the coast we can get a good bird's-eye view by sailing round the continent.

First appears the thousand miles of Pacific coast that belongs to Colombia, perhaps the most strongly Spanish country of all. Here is heard the most faultless Castilian, and the customs are those of Spain, with the inevitable "manana," which means "tomorrow," and we cannot hurry these dwellers under the tropical sun. Over in the inner regions we come upon Bogota, the capital, and nearby the great Tequendama Falls, higher than our own Niagara.

The next state is Ecuador, which for many years held the reputation of being a most unhealthful place. Conditions have become much better though, and we shall want to go up to Quito, known as the city on the equator. Here the climate is delightful for the city is located at a height of nine thousand feet. It is in Ecuador that the "Panama" hat originated, coming from Manabi, and was called by the native name of

TRAFFIC OFFICER IN ANTOFAGASTA, CHILE

"jipijapa." The straw must be worked with only during the early morning and the late evening hours and must be kept moist. Under these conditions it takes a good worker some five or six months to produce a hat. The Ecuadorean is willing to pay a hundred dollars for such a hat, but they are seldom seen by us, as

THE COYPU FOUND IN CHILE AND ARGENTINA
The fur called nutria comes from this little animal

A CHINCHILLA FROM CHILE

The chinchilla looks like a squirrel. It lives in a hole in the rocks or in a burrow. Chinchilla fur is valuable.

inferior ones are usually sold. A genuine hat of this kind is so small when folded that it can be fitted into a watch box.

PERU, A COUNTRY WITH A LONG HISTORY

As we look back into history the name of Peru comes to us first of all. It was here that the Spanish, under Pizarro, came down to get the gold from the Incas. With cunning and cruelty and deception the land was despoiled by the ruthless invaders of that wonderful civilization.

No doubt you would expect a warm and fertile coast in Peru, but such is not the case. The shore presents a long strip of barren territory with a cool climate. This is caused by the Antarctic current, and there are spots on this coast where it has not rained for eighty years.

The principal port is Callao, and eight miles beyond is the capital city of Lima, established by Pizarro, who called it the "City of Kings." Here was founded the University of Lima, a hundred years before Harvard. At Arequipa, about 450 miles south of Lima, Harvard has established a great observatory on the mountain called El Misti.

Peru has been exploited, it has been the scene of many revolutions for long years, and its progress has been held back. It has been said to be the country of richest resources in the whole world and yet one has to travel in a slow manner and often through the almost impassable ways shown in our picture. Mules and llamas are used and, due to poor harbor facilities, lighters usually have to be used in unloading ships. This rich country, ten times the size of New England, is developing into one of the garden spots of South America.

TRAVELLING IN PERU ON HORSEBACK ALONG A MUDDY TRAIL

THE LONG, LONG LAND OF CHILE

If we were to extend the state of Massachusetts clear across the whole United States to the Pacific, we should have some idea of the size of that queer country that occupies the rest of the west coast, Chile. After the Spanish had plundered Peru, the natives there told them of vast treasure to the south, and the pilgrimage into Chile was on. But the Spaniards met with tremendous hardships in this land and were not repaid in gold and silver as they were in Peru. Chile is known as the land of nitrate, which is shipped all over the world and is used for fertilizer, for the basis of explosives and for other purposes. Nowadays much

mining is carried on and back of the busy little city of Antofagasta is a great copper mine. These Chileans are a polite people and it is customary to see day laborers shaking hands with each other, sometimes several times in a day. They even take off their hats to each other, and are never in a hurry, though they manage to get a great deal of work done, and Chile is known as a thrifty and progressive land.

A SIDE TRIP TO BOLIVIA

Here at Antofagasta is one of the three routes over the high Andes into the inland country of Bolivia. It is over seven hundred miles inland, but the journey brings us to the third largest division of the continent, a country eight times the size of all the New England states. The vast majority of the people are Indians and mixed races, and there are fewer whites in all of Bolivia than in a city the size of Jersey City.

A trip to the principal city, La Paz, is to be led into the midst of the most brilliant color effects. The Indians are gaily decked out in their beautiful blends of reds and blues. Instead of automobiles, llamas travel through the streets and round about the city are the towering snow-capped peaks of many mountains.

Down the coast of Chile is the city of Valparaiso, well named "The Vale of Paradise." Though the largest city on the west coast, there are only a handful of citizens from the United States and we shall probably see no one we recognize. It is situated on more hills than Rome, wending its streets up and down no less than nineteen. We find double-decked electric street cars and it is most pleasant to ride on the top deck. But no one of the better class does this until after dark, for it is cheaper to ride above and one does not wish his friends to recognize him thus aloft.

TOP OF ANDES MOUNTAINS BETWEEN ARGENTINA AND CHILE

JUNGLE ON AN ISLAND OFF THE SOUTHERN COAST OF CHILE, SHOWING THE CLIMBING BAMBOO

PLAZA IN ANTOFAGASTA, CHILE

On a wonderful elevation, 117 miles to the east, rises the city of Santiago. The original location of the city is now a beautiful park with all manner of flowering bush and tree and is called El Cerro Santa Lucia.

But our time runs on and we must be away for a long journey down to the southern end of the continent. As we approach the "Horn" we wind in and out past many small islands, covered with foliage as dense as a tropical jungle. If we were in a sailing vessel we should have to go entirely around the Horn, but in our steamer we shall go through the channel and start north again for the rich land of the Argentine.

Beautiful Buenos Aires and its Neighbors

Not many years ago people in the United States had the impression that Argentina was a wild land of giant aborigines and a country of desert and sage brush. Happily this incorrect notion no longer exists, and we have some idea of what a wonderful country lies round about Buenos Aires, perhaps the most beautiful city in either of the Americas. One fifth of all the people of Argentina live in the capital and its main thoroughfare, the Avenida de Mayo, ranks with the famous streets of the world. A fairly extensive subway system exists, and over four million people are carried annually on the city railways.

Here are published over four hundred newspapers. Beautiful parks, immaculately kept, are all about. The Palermo, with its rose garden and tea-house, is a delight to the eye. Society folk belong to the great Jockey Club and horse-racing is a favorite sport. The Opera House is the finest in the western world, costing over five million dollars. The South American is passionately fond of music.

A side trip on a through steamer takes us up the river to Asuncion, the capital of Paraguay. This is the other country without a sea-coast, although this river entrance suffices very well. As a reminder of Paraguay we may remember the "yerba mate," a kind of tea, derived from the South American holly. The curing of the leaves in just the right way is an art among the Paraguayans. "Mate" really refers to the cup, which is a native gourd. The leaves are placed in this gourd and boiling water added. The decoction that results has all the stimulation of ordinary tea, with practically none of the injurious effects, and is used by over ten million people in the southern continent. Perhaps some day you will be offered a cup of yerba mate at your favorite tea-room.

Down the river, 100 miles from Buenos Aires we reach the ancient fortress, El Cerro, which guards the entrance to Montevideo. Now we are in Uruguay, in the attractive, clean, happy and contented city that is the capital. We must visit the Villa Dolorosa here, that wonderful home for animals where the anteater and the chimpanzee and the lion and hundreds of others abide in ideal surroundings. So well worked out is this enclosure that the appearance of absolute freedom prevails. There is also an animal cemetery, with stones and epitaphs.

The Great Stretches of Brazil

We are now nearing Brazil, that great republic, whose distances are like those of the heavens in their mag-

RANCH HOUSE IN SOUTHERN CHILE

NATURAL HISTORY MUSEUM, SAO PAULO, BRAZIL

© International
THE AMERICAN BUILDING AT THE BRAZILIAN CENTENNIAL EXPOSITION IN 1922

© International
ARRIVAL OF SECRETARY HUGHES AT THE GOVERNMENT MARINE DOCK IN THE HARBOR OF RIO DE JANEIRO

nitude. Think of the Amazon River which can accommodate an ocean liner for two thousand miles up into the country. Every kind of climate can be found and every kind of growing thing abounds. In fact, growth is so rank that it is often a problem to keep Nature from usurping all the land from the planted crops.

Sao Paulo is the first great city we stop to see, and here are buildings second to none. There is a splendid college founded here by a New York man, where men and maidens both are in attendance. There should be more of these Mackenzie Colleges in Brazil. Sao Paulo is noted for its superior educational advantages.

Next we enter the magnificent harbor of Rio de Janeiro, so large that pictures only show a portion of it. Here in 1922 was held that great exposition of which all have read. Secretary Hughes represented the United States and many of our citizens journeyed down to view with pleased surprise the mighty progress of Brazil.

Let us touch at Pernambuco, of which a poet has sung, "Hail, beautiful land! O Pernambuco, Venice transported to America, floating on the seas!" Beyond is another great port, Bahia, the source of much of our cocoa, and a place where production is indeed lavish, embracing everything from nuts to diamonds.

Para is the sea-port that stands for rubber, and Brazil furnishes about half of all the world's rubber. Let us go out with the rubber gatherer on his rounds. The trees are scattered over large areas and there are paths or "estradas" leading from one to the other. The gatherer taps the tree and hangs a tin to catch the juice. In the afternoon he makes his return trip and collects the juice in pails and takes it to a wood fire where the heat and smoke get in their work and coagulate or thicken this juice, properly known as latex. Great balls are formed by waving the thick juice on large wooden ladles and the balls are taken to the river front to be transported to the port. In early times the word "caucho" was applied to the rubber, and hence we secured the word now used, caoutchouc.

With this glimpse we must hurry on past the Guianas, three colonies of European countries, and governed after the fashion of their respective parent countries.

Last of all we approach Venezuela, which stands for many of us as a hot-bed of revolution. The mixed races have lead to much quarreling, but this country has much that is worth while. The capital, Caracas, is finely situated. It is full of beautiful Spanish types of homes and public buildings, with plazas and broad promenades. As we turn northward for home we wish that we might linger among these relatives of ours, the South Americans. Perhaps we shall study our Spanish more and realize that it is to the south that much of our attention should turn.

Here is a great wonderland that the next few years will see developing and becoming known far better than the two ends of our own country were known to each other a century ago. Instead of always visiting the European and Oriental countries let us plan to take a trip to South America, the land with a great future.

GEOGRAPHICAL AND HISTORICAL OUTLINES OF THE WORLD

THE WORLD IN OUTLINE
UNIVERSAL HISTORY IN PARALLEL OUTLINES
GEOGRAPHICAL MAPS AND CHARTS

THE

NEW REFERENCE ATLAS

Maps of North America, United States, South America, Europe, Asia, Africa, World, and The Far East.

Constructed exclusively for

THE MIDLAND PRESS

By

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LEGEND

Cities are shown according to population, thus:

- ⊙ CHICAGO above 500,000
- ○ Indianapolis 50,000 to 500,000
- ○ *Aurora* below 50,000

Capitals are underlined.

In a general way, density of population is indicated by the number of cities shown. In certain places, as in the eastern United States, it is impossible to show even large cities.

Rivers

Canals

Railroads

Steamship Lines

International Boundaries

National Boundaries

Pyrenees Type for Mountain Ranges

Mt. Whitney 14,501 Mountain Peak with elevation in feet

Deserts

Ice

Cold Ocean Currents

Warm Ocean Currents

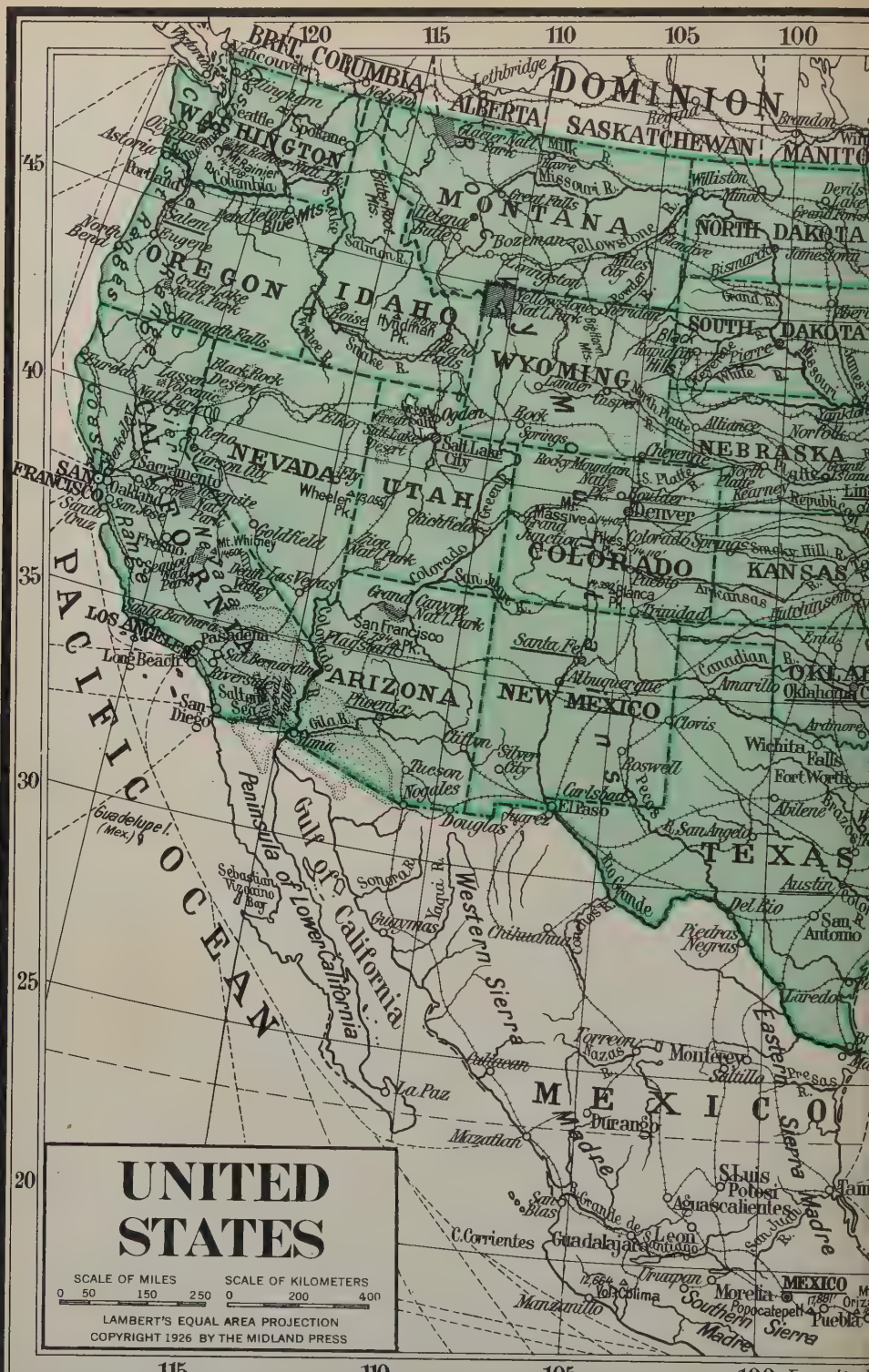
Maps of North America, South America and Africa are made to the same scale. This enables the reader easily to compare areas on these continents.

All recent boundary adjustments and changes in place names are shown on these maps. All new nations and mandates resulting from the World War are represented. All subsequent boundary changes due to post-war treaties are likewise indicated. Mandatory areas are shown with bars of color.

Names of cities as commonly used by English speaking peoples are used. In many cases equivalent native or domestic names are shown in brackets. This is considered advisable on account of custom, and because of the fact that many names in the language of the country in which the cities are situated are for our readers quite unpronounceable.

ASIA
Unexplored
ARCTIC
OCEAN
Bering Sea
Bering Strait
Wrangel I.
Long Strait
Point Barrow
Beaufort Sea
Aleutian Islands
Same Scale as Main Map
Near Is.
Rat Is.
Andreanof Is.
Unalaska
Pribilof Is.
St. Lawrence I.
Nunivak I.
Kuskokwim R.
Yukon R.
Kotzebue Sd.
Brooks Range
Mt. McKinley
Alaska Range
Bristol Bay
Alaska Pen.
Unimak
Shumagin Is.
Kodiak I.
Gulf of Alaska
ALASKA
YUKON
Dawson
Whitehorse
Atlin
Fort Simpson
Fort Liard
Fort Resolution
Great Slave L.
Great Bear L.
Provisional District of Mackenzie
NORTHWEST TERRITORIES
Provisional District of Franklin
Victoria I.
Banks I.
Prince Patrick I.
Ellesmere I.
C. Thomas Hubbard
C. Sheridan
Axel Heiberg I.
Grant Land
Prince Gustav Adolf Sea
Queen Elizabeth Is.
Melville I.
Prince of Wales I.
Boothia Pen.
Gulf of Boothia
Committee Bay
Gulf of Boothia
Gulf of Committee
Gulf of Boothia
Gulf of Committee
Gulf of Boothia
Gulf of Committee

NORTH AMERICA
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 300 500
SCALE OF KILOMETERS
0 200 400 600 800
LAMBERT'S EQUAL AREA PROJECTION
COPYRIGHT 1926, BY THE MIDLAND PRESS
UNITED STATES
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Gulf of Mexico
Caribbean Sea
Greater Antilles
WEST INDIES
CENTRAL AMERICA
SOUTH AMERICA
MEXICO
Tropic of Cancer
Equator
Longitude West 100 of Greenwich
130 120 110 90 80 70
30 20 10 0
A. J. NYSTROM & CO CHICAGO.


UNITED STATES
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 150 250
SCALE OF KILOMETERS
0 200 400
LAMBERT'S EQUAL AREA PROJECTION
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DOMINION
BRIT. COLUMBIA
ALBERTA
SASKATCHEWAN
MANITOBA
WASHINGTON
OREGON
IDAHO
MONTANA
NORTH DAKOTA
SOUTH DAKOTA
WYOMING
NEBRASKA
NEVADA
UTAH
COLORADO
KANSAS
CALIFORNIA
ARIZONA
NEW MEXICO
OKLAHOMA
TEXAS
MEXICO
PACIFIC OCEAN
Gulf of California
Peninsula of Lower California
Western Sierra Madre
Eastern Sierra Madre
Southern Sierra Madre
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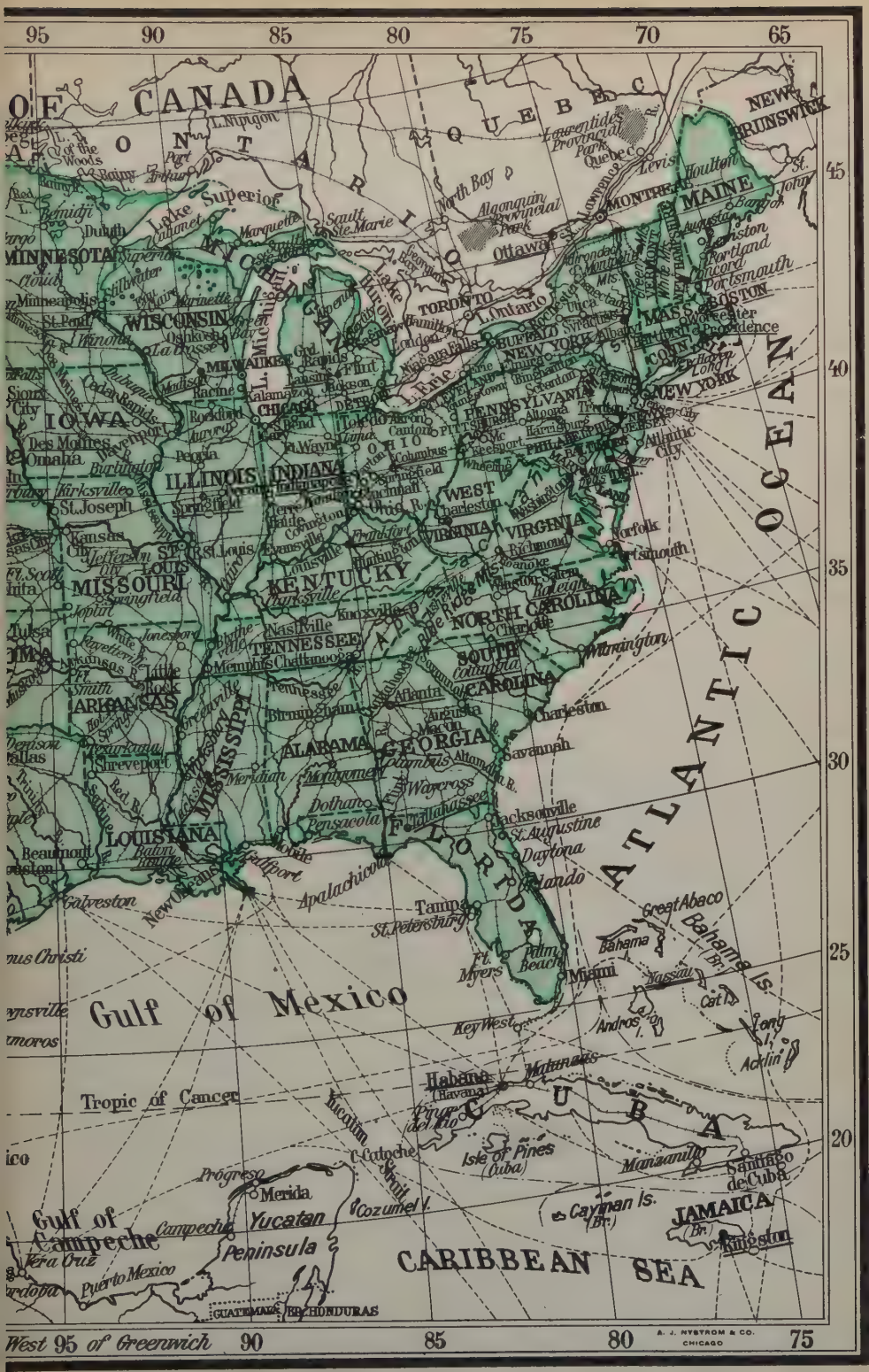
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OF CANADA
ONTARIO
QUEBEC
NEW BRUNSWICK
MAINE
MINNESOTA
WISCONSIN
MICHIGAN
IOWA
ILLINOIS
INDIANA
OHIO
MISSOURI
KENTUCKY
WEST VIRGINIA
VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
TENNESSEE
ARKANSAS
MISSISSIPPI
ALABAMA
GEORGIA
LOUISIANA
FLORIDA
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW YORK
MASS.
CONN.
R.I.
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Gulf of Mexico
CUBA
JAMAICA
CARIBBEAN SEA
Gulf of Campeche
Yucatan Peninsula
Tropic of Cancer
Lake Superior
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Erie
Lake Ontario
Lake Nipigon
Lake of the Woods
Lake Winnipeg
Lake Manitoba
Lake Winnipegosis
Lake Athabaska
Great Slave Lake
Great Bear Lake
Great Abaco
Bahama
Bahama Is. (Br.)
Nassau
Cat I.
Long I.
Acklin I.
Andros I.
Key West
Miami
Palm Beach
Fort Myers
Tampa
St. Petersburg
Apalachicola
Pensacola
Tallahassee
Jacksonville
St. Augustine
Daytona
Orlando
Savannah
Charleston
Wilmington
Norfolk
Portsmouth
Richmond
Atlanta
Augusta
Macon
Columbus
Montgomery
Meridian
Vicksburg
Shreveport
Dallas
Houston
Galveston
Beaumont
Port Arthur
New Orleans
Baton Rouge
Memphis
Nashville
Chattanooga
Knoxville
Louisville
Cincinnati
Columbus
Toledo
Detroit
Cleveland
Buffalo
Niagara Falls
Rochester
Syracuse
Albany
Boston
Portland
Concord
Portsmouth
Worcester
Providence
Hartford
New Haven
Springfield
Pittsburgh
Philadelphia
Atlantic City
Trenton
Harrisburg
Scranton
Binghamton
Elmira
Erie
Chicago
Milwaukee
Madison
Green Bay
Duluth
Minneapolis
St. Paul
Superior
Marquette
Sault Ste. Marie
North Bay
Algonquin Provincial Park
Ottawa
Montreal
Quebec
Levis
Lawrence
Laurentides Provincial Park
Houlton
St. John
Bangor
Augusta
Lewiston
Kansas City
St. Louis
Omaha
Des Moines
Sioux City
Cedar Rapids
Davenport
Rock Island
Peoria
Springfield
Quincy
St. Joseph
Kirksville
Joplin
Springfield
Little Rock
Fort Smith
Tulsa
Oklahoma City
Fort Worth
Wichita Falls
Abilene
San Antonio
Corpus Christi
Brownsville
Laredo
Eagle Pass
El Paso
Albuquerque
Santa Fe
Denver
Cheyenne
Salt Lake City
Ogden
Boise
Portland
Seattle
Spokane
Tacoma
Vancouver
Victoria
Calgary
Edmonton
Regina
Winnipeg
Prince Albert
Saskatoon
Moose Jaw
Medicine Hat
Lethbridge
Prince Rupert
Dawson
Whitehorse
Fairbanks
Juneau
Sitka
Ketchikan
Nome
Anchorage
Kodiak
Aleutian Islands
Hawaiian Islands
Honolulu
Midway Islands
Wake Island
Guam
Philippine Islands
Manila
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China
Russia
Siberia
Vladivostok
Harbin
Mukden
Peking
Tientsin
Nanking
Hankow
Canton
Amoy
Foochow
Swatow
Formosa
Taihoku
Taihorku
Taichu
Tainan
Takao
Hainan
Indo-China
Saigon
Hanoi
Haiphong
Thailand
Bangkok
Malaya
Singapore
Penang
Kuala Lumpur
Malacca
Sumatra
Java
Batavia
Surabaya
Borneo
Sarawak
Brunei
Celebes
Macassar
Moluccas
New Guinea
Port Moresby
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Sydney
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Tasmania
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Auckland
Wellington
Christchurch
Dunedin
Fiji Islands
Suva
Tonga Islands
Samoa
Pago Pago
Apia
Tahiti
Papeete
Marquesas Islands
Easter Island
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Peru
Lima
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Belo Horizonte
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Recife
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Manaus
Amazon R.
Rio Grande do Sul
Pôrto Alegre
Florianópolis
Curitiba
Goiania
Brasília
Cuiabá
Campo Grande
Natal
Maceió
Aracaju
Teresina
São Luiz
Venezuela
Caracas
Maracaibo
Valencia
Barquisimeto
Ciudad Bolívar
Colombia
Bogotá
Medellín
Cali
Barranquilla
Cartagena
Ecuador
Quito
Guayaquil
Panama
Panama City
Colón
Panama Canal
Costa Rica
San José
Nicaragua
Managua
Honduras
Tegucigalpa
Guatemala
Guatemala City
El Salvador
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Veracruz
Puerto Mexico
Progreso
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Campeche
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Isle of Pines (Cuba)
Cayman Is. (Br.)
Manzanillo
Santiago de Cuba
Kingston
Habana (Havana)
Matanzas
Pinar del Rio
Yucatan
C. Catoche
Grand Cayman
Jamaica
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Panama Canal
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Aleutian Islands
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James Bay
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Edmonton
Calgary
Lethbridge
Medicine Hat
Prince Albert
Moose Jaw
Prince Rupert
Vancouver
Victoria
Dawson
Whitehorse
Fairbanks
Juneau
Sitka
Ketchikan
Nome
Anchorage
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Philippine Islands
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Hong Kong
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Swatow
Formosa
Taihoku
Taichu
Tainan
Takao
Hainan
Indo-China
Saigon
Hanoi
Haiphong
Thailand
Bangkok
Malaya
Singapore
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Malacca
Sumatra
Java
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Suva
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Marquesas Islands
Easter Island
Galapagos Islands
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Valparaiso
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Montevideo
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Natal
Maceió
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Teresina
São Luiz
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Caracas
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Barquisimeto
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Colombia
Bogotá
Medellín
Cali
Barranquilla
Cartagena
Ecuador
Quito
Guayaquil
Panama
Panama City
Colón
Panama Canal
Costa Rica
San José
Nicaragua
Managua
Honduras
Tegucigalpa
Guatemala
Guatemala City
El Salvador
San Salvador
Mexico
Mexico City
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Manzanillo
Santiago de Cuba
Kingston
Habana (Havana)
Matanzas
Pinar del Rio
Yucatan
C. Catoche
Grand Cayman
Jamaica
Bermuda
West 95 of Greenwich
90
85
80
75
A. J. NYSTROM & CO.
CHICAGO

90
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Gulf of Mexico
Bahama Islands
Habana (Havana)
WEST INDIES
Tropic of Cancer
Merida
Santiago de Cuba
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC
HAITI
JAMAICA (Br.)
Kingston
Port au Prince
Santo Domingo
San Juan
Virgin Is. (U.S.)
PORTO-RICO (U.S.)
Leeward Is.
Guadeloupe I. (Fr.)
Dominica I. (Fr.)
Martinique I. (Fr.)
Barbados I. (Br.)
Belize
BRITISH HONDURAS
MEXICO
GUATEMALA
HONDURAS
Tegucigalpa
SALVADOR
NICARAGUA
Managua
COSTA RICA
CENTRAL AMERICA
CARIBBEAN SEA
Santa Marta
Barranquilla
Cartagena
Point Gallinas
Curaçao (Neth.)
Caracas
La Guaira
Margarita (Ven.)
Windward Is.
Port of Spain
Trinidad I. (Br.)
Delta of the Orinoco
Gulf of Darien
Panama
Panama Canal
Gulf of Panama
Maracaibo
Barrancas
VENEZUELA
Georgetown
Paramaribo
Cayenne
COLOMBIA
Mt Roraima 9636
Mt Duida
GUIANA (Br.) (Neth.) (Fr.)
Buenaventura
Esmeraldas
Quito
Mt Cotopaxi 19498
Mt Chimborazo 20702
Galapagos (Ecuador) Islands
Guayaquil
ECUADOR
Gulf of Guayaquil
Cuenca
Paita
Lambayeque
Chiclayo
Mt Huascaran 22188
PERU
Callao
Lima
Mouths of the Amazon
Equator
Obidos
Manaos
Amazon
Teffe
Negro R.
Madeira R.
Tapajoz R.
Xingu R.
Tocantins R.
Araguaya R.
Santarem
Belem (Para)
Maranhao (Sao Luiz)
Parnahyba
Fortaleza (Ceara)
Fernando Noronha (Brazil)
Cape Sao Roque
Praia da Rainha
Carolina
Therezina
Parahyba
Pernambuco (Recife)
Maceio
Bomfim
BRAZIL
Sao Felippe
Ruins
Madeira Falls
Santo Antonio
Guapore R.
Rio Madeira
Rio Purus
Rio Ucayali
Rio Marañon
Rio Pachitea
Rio Huallaga
Rio Ucayali
Rio Jurua
Rio Javary
Rio Iça
Rio Japura
Rio Caqueta
Rio Guaviare
Rio Meta
Rio Orinoco
Rio Cassiquiare
Rio Casiquiare
Rio Branco
Rio Trombetas
Rio Tapajoz
Rio Xingu
Rio Tocantins
Rio Araguaya
Rio Parnahyba
Rio Francisco
Rio Sao Manoel
Rio Arinos
Rio Tapajoz
Rio Madeira
Rio Negro
Rio Amazon
Rio Solimoes
Rio Putumayo
Rio Napo
Rio Marañon
Rio Ucayali
Rio Pachitea
Rio Huallaga

SOUTH AMERICA
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SCALE OF KILOMETERS 0 200 400 600 800
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A. J. NYSTROM & CO CHICAGO
PACIFIC OCEAN
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BOLIVIA
PARAGUAY
URUGUAY
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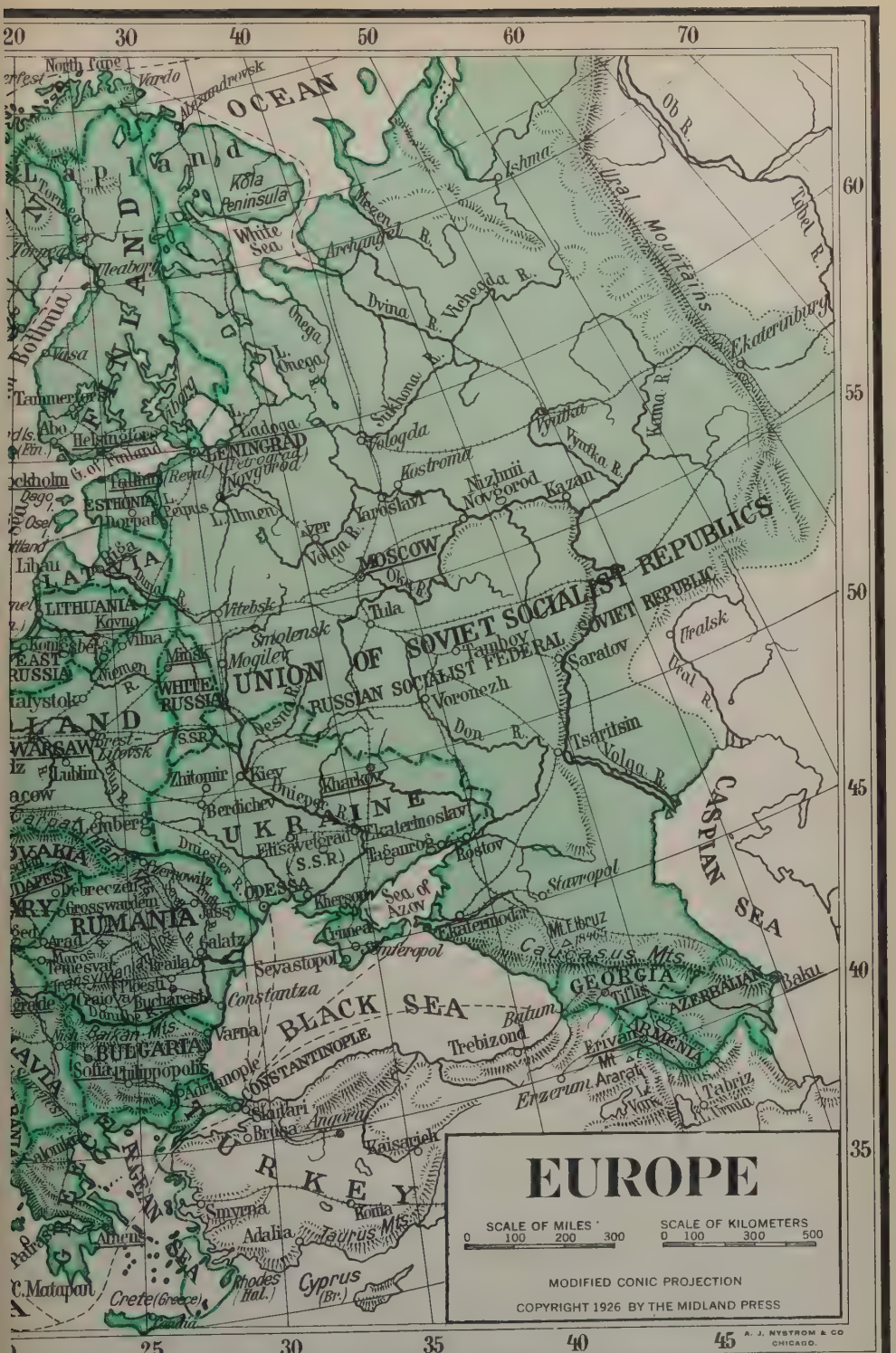
CHILE
Pisco
Arequipa
Mollendo
Tacna
Arica
Iquique
Antofagasta
Tropic of Capricorn
La Serena
Coquimbo
Valparaiso
Concepcion
Valdivia
Chiloe I.
Chonos Archipelago
Wellington I.
Magellan Str.
Strait of Magellan
Cape Horn
La Paz
Cochabamba
Sucre
Potosi
Salta
Tucuman
Asuncion
Corrientes
Santa Fe
Rosario
Cordoba
Mendoza
SANTIAGO
BUENOS AIRES
La Plata
Bahia Blanca
Blanca Bay
Gulf of San Matias
Gulf of St. George
Puerto Deseado
Santa Cruz
Tierra Del Fuego
Falkland Islands (Br.)
Stanley
South Georgia I. (British)
Montevideo
Pelotas
Porto Alegre
Rio Grande do Sul
Santos
Curityba
Blumenau
SAO PAULO
RIO DE JANEIRO
Campos
Victoria
Juiz de Fora
Bello Horizonte
Diamantina
Arassuahy
Caravellas
Trinidad (Brazil)
All Saints Bay
Bahia (Sao Salvador)
Plateau of Matto Grosso
Goyaz
Site of Future Capital
Araguay R.
Paraguay R.
Parana R.
Uruguay R.
Colorado R.
Negro R.
Chubut R.
Plata R.
Mt. Misti 19200
Mt. Sorata 21276
Mt. Illimani 21275
Mt. Aconcagua
Mt. Lopez
Longitude West of Greenwich
110 100 90 80 70 60 50 40 30 20
20 30 40 50

30
20
10
0
10
60
55
50
45
40
35
ARCTIC
OCEAN
Arctic Circle
ICELAND
Reykjavik
Mt. Hekla
The Faeroes (Den.)
Shetland Is.
Orkney Is.
Hebrides
NORWEGIAN SEA
Trondhjem
Christiansund
Bergen
Stavanger
Oslo
Christiania
Gothenburg
Malmo
Copenhagen
SWEDEN
Stockholm
Sundsvall
Haparanda
Tornio
Tromsö
Lofoten Is.
SCOTLAND
Aberdeen
Edinburgh
Glasgow
NORTH BRITAIN
NORTH SEA
DENMARK
GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND
NORTH IRELAND
IRISH FREE STATE
Belfast
Dublin
Cork
LIVERPOOL
MANCHESTER
SHEFFIELD
Hull
Newcastle
ENGLAND
WALES
BIRMINGHAM
Cardiff
LONDON
Southampton
Plymouth
The Hague
AMSTERDAM
ROTTERDAM
NETHERLANDS
HAMBURG
Bremen
Hanover
Berlin
Stettin
Posen
Magdeburg
DRESDEN
LEIPZIG
BRESLAU
COLOGNE
Frankfort
PRAGUE
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
English Channel
Havre
Brest
Dunkirk
Calais
Boulogne
Amiens
PARIS
Versailles
Rennes
Nantes
Orleans
Loire R.
Tours
Troyes
Strasbourg
Nancy
SAAR BASIN
Stuttgart
Ulm
MUNICH
Augsburg
Innsbruck
VIENNA
Linz
Gratz
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
Bay of Biscay
FRANCE
Limoges
Bordeaux
Dordogne R.
Garonne R.
Toulouse
Rhone R.
LYON
Geneva
SWITZERLAND
Zurich
Constance
TURIN
MILAN
Venice
Trieste
Genoa
Corunna
C. Finisterre
Vigo
Oporto
Gijon
Santander
Pyrenees
Valladolid
Douro R.
Ebro R.
Saragossa
ANDORRA
Nice
MONACO
MARSEILLE
Toulon
Florence
SAN MARINO
Bologna
ADRIATIC SEA
Lisbon
Tagus R.
MADRID
Toledo
Valencia
BARCELONA
G. of Lions
Corsica (Fr.)
Bastia
Elba
Ajaccio
ROME
Leghorn
Pisa
Tiraspol
Bari
Brindisi
PORTUGAL
SPAIN
Guadiana R.
Balearic Is. (Spain)
Minorca
Majorca
Iviza
Sardinia (to Italy)
NAPLES
Tyrrhenian Sea
Cagliari
Mt. Vesuvius 4260'
Taranto
Corfu
Ionian Sea
C. St. Vincent
Cordoba
Murcia
Granada
Seville
Alicante
Cadiz
Malaga
Gibraltar (Br.)
Strait of Gibraltar
Cartagena
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Palermo
Trapani
Messina
Catania
Syracuse
Reggio
Melilla
Oran
Algiers
Tunis
Bon
AFRICA
Malta (Br.)
5
0 Longitude 5 East of 10 Greenwich 15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0 100 200 300
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0 100 300 500
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BALTIC SEA
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CASPIAN SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Lapland
Kola Peninsula
White Sea
Archangel
Onega R.
Dvina R.
Vichegda R.
Ural Mountains
Ob R.
Ekaterinburg
Ishma
Vologda
Kama R.
Vyatka R.
Kostroma
Nizhnii Novgorod
Kazan
Yaroslavl
Rybinsk
Volga R.
MOSCOW
Oka R.
Tula
Smolensk
Tambov
Saratov
Uralsk
Ural R.
Voronezh
Don R.
Tsaritsin
Volga R.
Vitebsk
Mogilev
Minsk
Kovno
Vilna
Grodno
Brest Litovsk
Lublin
Zhitomir
Kiev
Kharkov
Dniepr R.
Berdichev
Ekaterinoslav
Dniester R.
Elisavetgrad
Tagaurog
Rostov
Stavropol
ODESSA
Kherson
Sea of Azov
Crimea
Ekaterinodar
Mt. Elbruz
Caucasus Mts.
Sevastopol
Simferopol
Constantza
Galatz
Braila
Bucharest
Craiova
Pitesti
Danube R.
Varna
Batum
Trebizond
GEORGIA
Tiflis
AZERBAIJAN
Baku
ARMENIA
Erivan
Mt. Ararat
Lake Van
Tabriz
Urmia
Erzerum
CONSTANTINOPLE
Adrianople
Philippopolis
Sofia
Balkan Mts.
Skutari
Brussa
Angora
Kaisarieh
Smyrna
Konia
Adalia
Taurus Mts.
Cyprus (Br.)
Rhodes (Ital.)
Crete (Greece)
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Athens
Patras
Corfu
Durazzo
Scutari
Cattaro
Trieste
Fiume
Agram
Budapest
Debreczen
Grosswardein
Arad
Temesvar
Kronstadt
Hermannstadt
Klausenburg
Jassy
Cracow
Lemberg
Przemysl
Warsaw
Ivangorod
Libau
Riga
Dvina R.
Pernau
Reval (Tallinn)
Narva
Pskov
Novgorod
Ladoga
L. Onega
Petsamo
Vardo
North Cape
Tromsoe
Hammerfest
Alexandrovsk
Kandalaksha
Umea
Vasa
Abo
Helsingfors
Gulf of Finland
Tammerfors
Gulf of Bothnia
Haparanda
Torneå
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Utrecht
Arnhem
Nijmegen
Zuider Zee
Leeuwarden
Groningen
Delfzijl
Dollart
Ems R.
Weser R.
Elbe R.
Oder R.
Vistula R.
Danzig
Gulf of Danzig
Memel
Königsberg
Pillau
Tilsit
Insterburg
Gumbinnen
Allenstein
Thorn
Posen
Bromberg
Graudenz
Marienwerder
Stettin
Swinemünde
Rügen
Stralsund
Rostock
Warnemünde
Wismar
Lübeck
Kiel Canal
Eider R.
Schleswig
Jutland
Skagen
Hanover
Brunswick
Magdeburg
Potsdam
Berlin
Frankfort
Breslau
Glogau
Liegnitz
Dresden
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Liège
Namur
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Ghent
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Ostend
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Calais
Boulogne
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Strait of Dover
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Fort William
Oban
Firth of Clyde
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Rochdale
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Preston
Blackpool
Lancaster
Barrow
Carlisle
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Dumfries
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St. George's Channel
Bristol Channel
Severn R.
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Swansea
Milford Haven
Pembroke
Tenby
Carmarthen
Aberystwyth
Cardigan
Holyhead
Anglesey
Menai Strait
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Rhyl
Chester
Shrewsbury
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Derby
Stoke
Worcester
Gloucester
Bath
Bristol
Exeter
Plymouth
Falmouth
Penzance
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Cape Finisterre
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Gulf of Genoa
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Perugia
Rimini
Ancona
Pesaro
Ravenna
Ferrara
Bologna
Modena
Parma
Piacenza
Milan
Como
Lake Como
Lake Maggiore
Lake Lugano
Lake Garda
Verona
Mantua
Brescia
Bergamo
Turin
Alessandria
Novara
Vercelli
Susa
Mont Cenis
Mont Cenis Tunnel
Simplon Pass
Simplon Tunnel
Great St. Bernard Pass
Mont Pelvoux
Mont Iseran
Little St. Bernard Pass
Mont Cenis Pass
Mont Genèvre Pass
Col de Tende
Col de Larche
Col de Restefond
Col de la Bonette
Col de la Cayolle
Col de Vars
Col de Lautaret
Col de Galibier
Col de la Croix Haute
Col de Perthus
Col de Puymorens
Col de Portillon
Col de Peyresourde
Col du Tourmalet
Col d'Aubisque
Col de Somport
Col de Roncesvalles
Col de Pancorbo
Col de Reinosa
Col de Pajares
Col de Piedrafita
Col de Padornelo
Col de Guadarrama
Col de Somosierra
Col de Puerto
Col de Navacerrada
Col de Guadalupe
Col de Puerto de Baños
Col de Puerto de Miravete
Col de Puerto de Mirabel
Col de Puerto de Monesterio
Col de Puerto de Fuente Ovejuna
Col de Puerto de Peñarroya
Col de Puerto de Alcaracejos
Col de Puerto de Almadén
Col de Puerto de Alcudia
Col de Puerto de Calatrava
Col de Puerto de Manzanares
Col de Puerto de Ciudad Real
Col de Puerto de Toledo
Col de Puerto de Aranjuez
Col de Puerto de Madrid
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Col de Puerto de Zamora
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Col de Puerto de Ponferrada
Col de Puerto de Villafranca
Col de Puerto de Lugo
Col de Puerto de Orense
Col de Puerto de Tuy
Col de Puerto de Vigo
Col de Puerto de Pontevedra
Col de Puerto de Santiago
Col de Puerto de Coruña
Col de Puerto de Ferrol
Col de Puerto de Betanzos
Col de Puerto de Mondoñedo
Col de Puerto de Ribadeo
Col de Puerto de Vivero
Col de Puerto de Viveiro
Col de Puerto de Foz
Col de Puerto de Burela
Col de Puerto de Cedeira
Col de Puerto de Ortigueira
Col de Puerto de Cariño
Col de Puerto de Ares
Col de Puerto de Mugardos
Col de Puerto de Pontedeume
Col de Puerto de Betanzos
Col de Puerto de Mondoñedo
Col de Puerto de Ribadeo
Col de Puerto de Vivero
Col de Puerto de Viveiro
Col de Puerto de Foz
Col de Puerto de Burela
Col de Puerto de Cedeira
Col de Puerto de Ortigueira
Col de Puerto de Cariño
Col de Puerto de Ares
Col de Puerto de Mugardos
Col de Puerto de Pontedeume

ASIA
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 300 500
SCALE OF KILOMETERS
0 200 400 600 800
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EUROPE
AFRICA
ARCTIC
North Cape
Arctic Circle
Nova Zembla
Kara Sea
Baltic Sea
Mediterranean Sea
PARIS
BERLIN
MILAN
VIENNA
BUDAPEST
ROME
CONSTANTINOPEL
WARSAW
MOSCOW
PETROGRAD
Archangel
Mountains
Ural Mountains
Volga R.
Ural R.
UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS (RUSSIA)
Omsk
Barnaul
Akmolinsk
Semipalatinsk
Kirghiz Steppe
Aral Sea
L. Balkash
Tashkent
Samarkand
Turkestan
Tarim R.
SINKIANG
Kuenlun
TIBET
BLACK SEA
CASPIAN SEA
TURKEY
Smyrna
Adana
Cyprus
Alexandria
CAIRO
Nile R.
Red Sea
SYRIA
ARABIA
Damascus
Aleppo
Euphrates R.
Mesopotamia
Baghdad
Mosul
Teheran
PERSIA
Askhabad
Yezd
Shiraz
Persian Gulf
AFGHANISTAN
Kabul
Herat
Kandahar
Quetta
BALUCHISTAN
Lahore
Simla
Srinagar
Delhi
Cawnpore
Allahabad
Lucknow
N.E.P.A.
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ASSAM
BURMA
Rangoon
Akyab
Chittagong
Hazaribagh
Ranchi
Calcutta
Howrah
Nagpur
Jubbulpore
Surat
Ahmadabad
Bombay
DAMAN (Port.)
Poona
Hyderabad
Goa (Port.)
Mangalore
Bangalore
MADRAS
Pondicherry (Fr.)
Karikal (Fr.)
Mahe (Fr.)
Calicut
Madura
C. Comorin
CEYLON (Br.)
Colombo
Kotaraja
Bay of Bengal
Arabian Sea
INDIAN OCEAN
Great Arabian Desert
Nejd
Hejaz
Mecca
Medina
Asir
Yemen
Sana
Aden (Br.)
Aden
Gulf of Aden
Makalla
Muscat
Oman
Karachi
Indus R.
Ganges R.
Brahmaputra R.
Irrawaddy R.
Mekong R.
Yangtse
Yellow R.
Tsinanfu
Kobdo
Tihwa (Urumchi)
Barkul
Lop Nor
Altyn Tagh
Mts. of Kun Lun
Mts. of Tibet
Mts. of Hindu Kush
Mts. of Afghanistan
Mts. of Persia
Mts. of Kurdistan
Mts. of Armenia
Mts. of Caucasus
Mts. of Asia Minor
Mts. of Arabia
Mts. of Yemen
Mts. of Abyssinia
Mts. of Africa
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Mts. of Tibet
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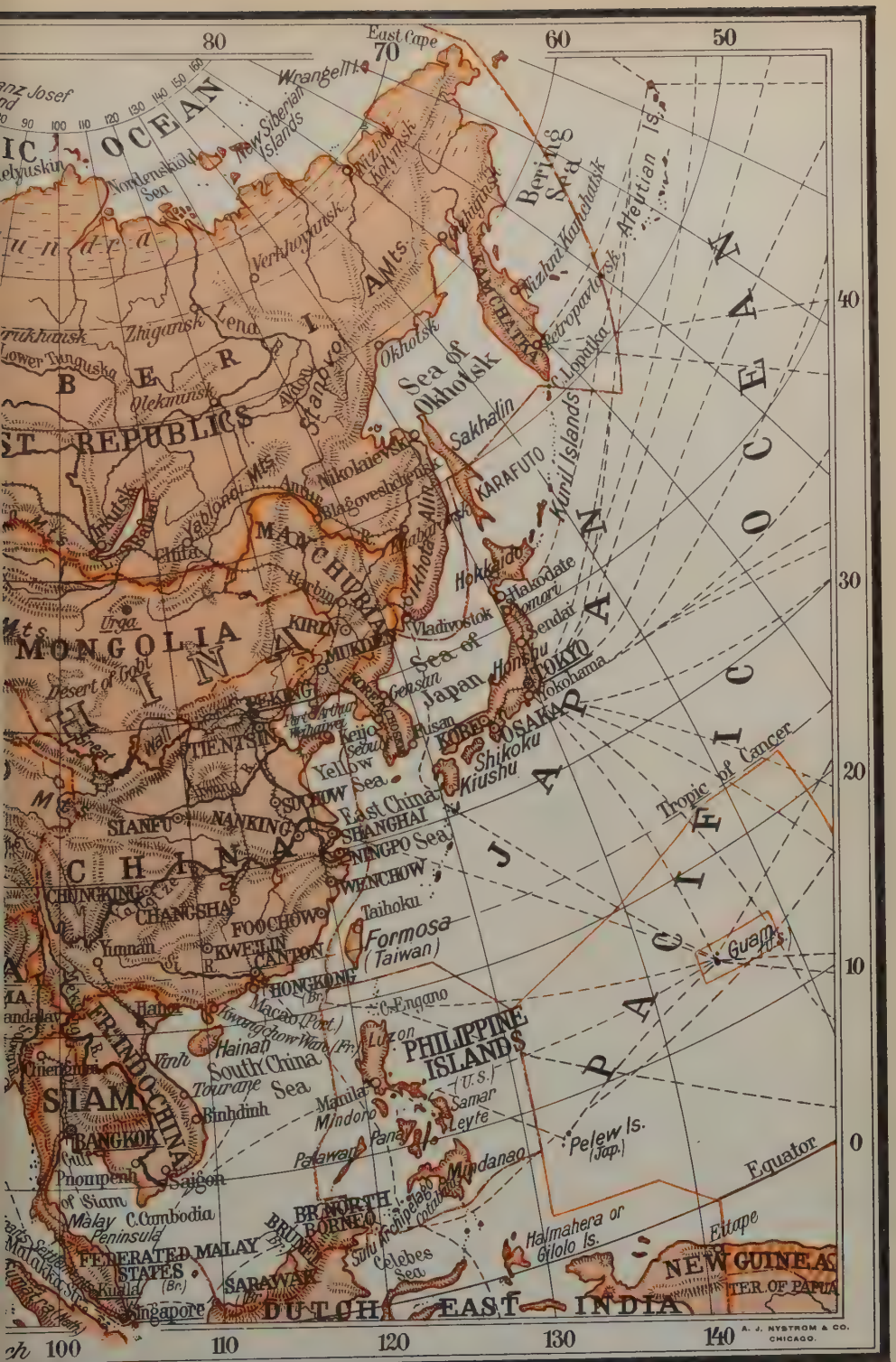
Mts. of Sumatra
Mts. of Java
Mts. of Borneo
Mts. of Celebes
Mts. of Philippines
Mts. of Japan
Mts. of Formosa
Mts. of Hainan
Mts. of Indo-China
Mts. of Siam
Mts. of Burma
Mts. of Assam
Mts. of Bhutan
Mts. of Nepal
Mts. of Sikkim
Mts. of Kashmir
Mts. of Ladakh
Mts. of Baltistan
Mts. of Gilgit
Mts. of Chitral
Mts. of Swat
Mts. of Dir
Mts. of Bajaur
Mts. of Mohmand
Mts. of Khyber
Mts. of Kurram
Mts. of Waziristan
Mts. of Tochi
Mts. of Gomal
Mts. of Zhob
Mts. of Quetta
Mts. of Kalat
Mts. of Las Bela
Mts. of Makran
Mts. of Persian Gulf
Mts. of Oman
Mts. of Hadramaut
Mts. of Yemen
Mts. of Asir
Mts. of Hejaz
Mts. of Nejd
Mts. of Arabian Desert
Mts. of Great Arabian Desert
Mts. of Syrian Desert
Mts. of Mesopotamia
Mts. of Euphrates
Mts. of Tigris
Mts. of Kurdistan
Mts. of Armenia
Mts. of Caucasus
Mts. of Asia Minor
Mts. of Turkey
Mts. of Greece
Mts. of Italy
Mts. of France
Mts. of Germany
Mts. of Austria
Mts. of Hungary
Mts. of Poland


80
70
East Cape
60
50
Wrangell I.
New Siberian Islands
Bering Sea
Aleutian Is.
Nordenskiold Sea
Verkhoyansk
Anadyr
Petropavlovsk
Lena
Okhotsk
Sea of Okhotsk
Sakhalin
Kuril Islands
Lower Tunguska
Olekminsk
Aldan
Nikolaievsk
KARAFUTO
Yablonoi Mts.
Amur
Blagoveshchensk
Khingan Mts.
Hokkaido
Hakodate
Harbin
Vladivostok
Sendai
Urga
KIRIN
MUKDEN
Sea of Japan
Honshu
TOKYO
Yokohama
Desert of Gobi
PEKING
Port Arthur
Dairen
Keijo (Seoul)
Fusan
KOREA
OSAKA
Shikoku
Kiushu
Yellow Sea
TIENTSIN
SUCHOW
East China Sea
SHANGHAI
SIANFU
NANKING
NINGPO
WENCHOW
CHUNGKING
CHANGSHA
Taihoku
FOOCHOW
Formosa (Taiwan)
Yunnan
KWEILIN
CANTON
HONGKONG (Br.)
Macao (Port.)
Cape Engano
Hainan
South China Sea
Luzon
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS (U.S.)
Manila
Mindoro
Samar
Leyte
Guam
Tropic of Cancer
Tourane
Binhdinh
SIAM
BANGKOK
Gulf of Siam
Pnompenh
Saigon
Malay Peninsula
Cambodia
Palawan
Panay
Mindanao
Pelew Is. (Jap.)
Equator
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BRITISH NORTH BORNEO
BRUNEI
SARAWAK
Sulu Archipelago
Celebes Sea
Halmahera or Gilolo Is.
Eitape
NEW GUINEA
TER. OF PAPUA
Singapore
DUTCH EAST INDIA
100
110
120
130
140
40
30
20
10
0
A. J. NYSTROM & CO. CHICAGO.

EUROPE
ASIA
AFRICA
Cape Verde Islands (Port.)
Santo Antao
St. Louis
Boavista
Sao Thiago
Dakar
Porto Praia
Senegal R.
MADRID
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
Lisbon
MARSEILLE
Genoa
Venice
ITALY
ROME
NAPLES
GREECE
Athens
ODESSA
Kertch
BLACK SEA
CONSTANTINOPLE
Batum
Angora
TURKEY
Asia Minor
CASPIAN SEA
Tabriz
Teheran
PERSIA
Baghdad
Beirut
Damascus
Jerusalem
Alexandria
Port Said
Suez
CAIRO
Sinai 8593
Persian G.
Arabia
RED SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Gibraltar
Tangier
Tetuan
Rabat
Melilla
Oran
Algiers
Constantine
Tunis
NORTHERN TER.
SPANISH
TUNISIA
Madeira Is. (Port.)
Casablanca
Mogador
Marrakesh
MOROCCO
French
Rigig
Tuggurt
Tripoli
Gulf of Sidra
Benghazi
CYRENAICA
Jarabub
Siwa
Canary Is. (Sp.)
Ifni
Spanish
ALGERIA
(French)
TRIPOLITANIA
LIBYA
(Italian)
EGYPT
Asyut
Luxor
Aswan
Nile R.
Libyan Desert
Nubian Desert
Arabian Desert
Mecca
Igidi Desert
SOUTHERN TER.
Ahaggar Mts.
Ghat
Fezzan
Rio de Oro
Spanish
Villa Cisneros
Port Etienne
MAURITANIA
Arawan
Timbuktu
Agades
Bilma
Tibesti Mts.
FRENCH WEST AFRICA
FRENCH SUDAN
NIGER
Zinder
Lake Chad
Niger R.
Dakar
St. Louis
Bathurst
SENEGAL
Kayes
GAMBIA (Br.)
PORT. GUINEA
Bissau
Bamako
UPPER VOLTA
Wagadugu
FR. GUINEA
Konakry
Freetown
SIERRA LEONE (Br.)
Liberia
Kankan
Boldama
Korhogo
IVORY COAST
Bouake
GOLD COAST
Kumasi
TOGO
DAHOMEY
Abomey
Kano
Maidugari
Bebba
Kaduna
NIGERIA
Yebbu
Vokoja
Lagos
British
Garua
Mandara
Shari R.
Omdurman
Khartum
Merowe
Berber
ANGLO EGYPTIAN SUDAN
(British)
El Fasher
Abeshr Marra Mts.
Kodok
White Nile R.
Blue Nile R.
Abyssinian Highlands
Addis Ababa
Jibuti
Harar
ERITREA
Asmara
Italian
Aden
Gulf of Aden
FR. SOMALILD.
Berbera
SOMALILD. PROT. (Br.)
ABYSSINIA
ETHIOPIA
Ras Dashan 15153
Equator
20
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20
30
40
50
25W
20W
25
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15
10
40
30
20
10

AFRICA
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 300 500
SCALE OF KILOMETERS
0 200 400 600 800
LAMBERT'S EQUAL AREA PROJECTION
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ATLANTIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
Gulf of Guinea
Equator
FRENCH EQ.
BELGIAN CONGO
ANGOLA
Portuguese West Africa
NORTHERN RHODESIA
NYASALAND
SOUTHERN RHODESIA
MOZAMBIQUE
Mozambique Chan.
MADAGASCAR
UGANDA PROT.
KENYA
ITALIAN SO.
TANGANYIKA TERRITORY
ZANZIBAR PROT.
SOUTHWEST AFRICA
BECHUANALAND
TRANSVAAL
ORANGE FREE STATE
NATAL
BASUTO LD.
SWAZI LD.
UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA
CAPE OF GOOD HOPE
RIO MUNI
(Spanish)
(Sp.) Fernando Po
Prince's I.
St. Thomas I.
(Port.)
Santa Isabel
Grand Bassam
Monrovia
Lome
Accra
Ascension I.
(Br.)
St. Helena
(Br.)
Loanda
Benguela
Mossamedes
Lobito
Bihe
Matadi
Leopoldville
Brazzaville
Loango
Kabinda
(Port.)
Kasai R.
Kwango R.
Kasai R.
Kasongo
Kindu
Stanleyville
Bangui
Congo R.
Uele R.
Mbomu R.
Lado
Juba
Entebbe
Kisumu
Mt. Kenya
17,040
Nairobi
Kisumaya
Mogadishu
Mt. Kilimanjaro
19,346
Tanga
Pemba I.
Tabora
Dar es Salaam
Kilwa
Lindi
Ruaha R.
Rovuma R.
Ibo
Diego Suarez
Mozambique
Port Herald
Zambezi R.
Livingstone
Salisbury
Victoria
Lorenco Marques
Beira
Chinde
Tananarive
Tulear
Majunga
Inhambane
C. Ste. Marie
Tsaneb
Grootfontein
Windhoek
Swakopmund
Walvis
(to Cape of Good Hope)
Luderitz
Karibib
Otavi
Okahandja
Serowe
Lobatse
Mafeking
Johannesburg
Pretoria
Kimberley
Bloemfontein
Orange R.
Fort Nolloth
Port Elizabeth
Durban
Pietermaritzburg
Cape Town
C. of Good Hope
Mossel Bay
Uganda R.
Victoria Nile
Albert Nile
Albert L.
Rudolf L.
Kioga L.
Tanganyika L.
Nyasa L.
Kariba
Victoria Falls
Zambezi
Limpopo R.
Orange R.
20
10
0
10
20
30
40
50
Longitude East of Greenwich
A. J. NYSTROM & CO.
CHICAGO

ARCTIC OCEAN
ASIA
Bering Sea
Alaska
Yukon R.
Gulf of Alaska
Baffin Bay
Davis Strait
Greenland
Hudson Bay
Dominion of Canada
NORTH AMERICA
United States
Vancouver
Seattle
San Francisco
Los Angeles
Missouri R.
Mississippi R.
Chicago
St. Lawrence R.
Quebec
New York
Washington
Gulf of Mexico
Mexico
West Indies
Central America
Panama
Venezuela
Colombia
Amazon R.
Peru
Bolivia
Brazil
SOUTH AMERICA
Pernambuco
Rio de Janeiro
Valparaiso
Buenos Aires
Argentina
Falkland Islands
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Honolulu
Hawaiian Islands
Equator
Iceland
Great Britain
Ireland
Gibraltar
French
ANTARCTIC
OCEAN
NORTH POLAR AREA
ASIA
EUROPE
NORTH AMERICA
Greenland
Pacific Ocean
Atlantic Ocean
Arctic Circle
North Magnetic Pole
Long. 60 West 40 of 20 Green

HE DIALS SHOW THE TIME ON EACH
IDIAN WHEN IT IS NOON AT GREENWICH
ARCTIC OCEAN
Spitsbergen
Alaska
Arctic Circle
Siberia
Soviet Socialist Republics
Lena R.
Bering Sea
Sea of Okhotsk
Ob R.
Union of
RUSSIA
Amur R.
Manchuria
Mongolia
Moscow
Berlin
Paris
Vienna
Constantinople
Turkey
Sinkiang
Yenisei R.
Tibet
Yangtze R.
Shanghai
Tokyo
PACIFIC
OCEAN
Tropic of Cancer
Tersia
Arabia
Libya
Algeria
Delhi
Bombay
India
China
Hongkong
Philippine Islands
Manila
Guam
Borneo
Java
Sumatra
Dutch East India
New Guinea
AFRICA
Abyssinia
Aden
Zanzibar
INDIAN OCEAN
Madagascar
Tropic of Capricorn
AUSTRALIA
Perth
Sydney
Canberra
Federal Capital
Melbourne
Tasmania
Tasman Sea
New Zealand
SOUTH POLAR AREA
Indian Ocean
South Magnetic Pole Unexplored
ANTARCTICA
South Pole
Amundsen Dec. 1911
Scott Jan. 1912
Unexplored
Antarctic Circle
Atlantic Ocean
Pacific Ocean
SOUTH AMERICA
WORLD
SCALE OF MILES
0 1000
SCALE OF KILOMETERS
0 1000 2000
VAN DER GRINTEN'S PROJECTION
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0 Long. 20 East 40 of Greenwich

Spelling of names agrees with the decisions of the United States Geographic Board, the Geographic Board of Canada, the Permanent Committee on Geographic Names for British Official Use and the Chinese Postal Guide. The latest school geographies have also been consulted.

THE WORLD IN OUTLINE

Its Hemispheres, Continental Divisions and Countries.

SHAPE AND SIZE—The Earth is very nearly an oblate spheroid, whose shorter axis coincides with its axis of rotation passing through the two poles. It rotates at a velocity of 15 degrees an hour (about 17,366 miles a minute at the equator); 1 degree is therefore equal to 4 minutes.

The circumference of the globe is about 24,855 miles, and the diameter about 7900 miles. Area of surface, 196,940,400 square miles; volume, 259,880 million cubic miles; mean density, 5.5.

THE LAND—The land covers 55,063,000 square miles. Strictly speaking, the land surface consists of two great continental land masses—Western Continent and Eastern Continent—and Australia, an Island-Continent; more familiar division is into six continents or grand divisions: North America, South America, Europe, Asia, Africa, and Australia.

The mean height of the land has been estimated at 2440 feet.

THE OCEANS—The oceans, including the inland seas connected with them, cover 141,877,000 square miles, or 72 per cent of the total surface of the earth. There are 2.59 square miles of ocean to every square mile of land. Murray states the greatest depth of the Atlantic Ocean at 27,366 feet; Pacific Ocean, 30,000 feet; Indian Ocean, 18,582 feet; Southern Ocean, 25,200 feet; Arctic Ocean, 9000 feet. The Atlantic Ocean has an area, in square miles, of 24,536,000; Pacific Ocean, 70,000,000; Indian Ocean, 17,084,000; Arctic Ocean, 5,500,000; Southern Ocean, 30,592,000.

POPULATION—Estimated at about 1,700,000,000.

RACES—**Caucasian** numbers about 850,000,000, and now occupies almost the whole of Europe, the greater part of North America and Australasia, and large districts of Southern Africa, South America, and Northern Asia. **Mongolian**—natives of China, Siberia, Siam, Japan, Korea, etc.—625,000,000; **Malayan**—found chiefly in Malay islands and peninsula, New Zealand, and Madagascar—25,000,000; **Negro**—chiefly in Africa, with ten millions in United States—120,000,000; **American**—native Indian tribes—10,000,000; other races, 70,000,000.

LANGUAGES—Seven languages are each employed by more than 50,000,000 people—Chinese, Hindoostani, English, Russian, German, French, Spanish; 400,000,000 Speak Chinese.

RELIGIONS—Principal religions: Christian (Roman Catholic, Protestant, Greek Church), Buddhist and Confucian-Mohammedan, Brahmanist and Jewish. Religious adherence estimated; Christian, 600,000,000—Protestants, 193,000,000, Roman Catholics, 290,000,000, Greek and others, 117,000,000; Buddhists and Confucians, 500,000,000; Mohammedans, 250,000,000, Brahmanists, 220,000,000, Jews, 11,000,000, Pagans, 110,000,000.

GOVERNMENTS—The barbarous races usually live under tribal form of government; civilized nations under monarchical or republican form. The nations of the Eastern Continent are partly under monarchical forms, and, with but few exceptions, all countries of the Western Continent are republics.

I. WESTERN HEMISPHERE.

(1) North America (p. 436)	Canada (Brit.)*	C-E	2– 3
	Central America	D-E	5– 6
	Cuba	D-E	5– 6
	Dominican Rep.	D-E	5– 6
	Haiti	D-E	5– 6
	Mexico	D-E	5– 6
	United States	D-F	3– 5
(2) South America (p. 450)	Argentina	D-E	8–10
	Bolivia	E-F	7– 8
	Brazil	E-F	6– 7
	Chile	D-E	7– 9
	Columbia	D-E	6– 7
	Ecuador	D-E	6– 7
	Guiana (Brit., Fr. and Neth.)	E-F	6– 7
	Paraguay	E-F	7– 8
	Peru	D-E	7– 8
	Uruguay	E-F	8– 9
	Venezuela	D-E	6– 7

II. EASTERN HEMISPHERE.

(1) Europe (p. 455)	Austria	F-G	3– 4
	Belgium	F-G	3– 4
	Bulgaria	G-H	3– 4
	Czecho-Slovakia	F-G	3– 4
	Denmark	F-G	2– 3
	Esthonia	G-H	2– 3
	Finland	G-H	2– 3
	France	F-G	3– 4
	Georgia	G-H	3– 4
	Germany	F-G	2– 3
	Great Britain	F-G	2– 3
	Greece	F-G	3– 4
	Hungary	F-G	3– 4
	Italy	F-G	3– 4
	Jugo Slavia	F-G	3– 4
	Latvia	G-H	2– 3
	Lithuania	G-H	2– 3
	Netherlands	F-G	3– 4
	Norway	F-G	2– 3
	Poland	F-G	3– 4
	Portugal	F-G	3– 4
	Rumania	F-G	3– 4
	Russia	G-H	2– 3
	Spain	F-G	3– 4
	Sweden	F-G	2– 3
	Switzerland	F-G	3– 4
(2) Asia (p. 468)	Afghanistan	G-H	4– 5
	Arabia	G-H	4– 6
	Bhutan	A-B	4– 5
	Burma (Brit.)	A-B	5– 6
	China	A-B	3– 5
	India (Brit.)	A-B	5– 6
	Japan	A-B	3– 5
	Nepal	A-B	4– 5
	Oman	G-H	5– 6
	Palestine	F-G	3– 4
	Persia	G-H	4– 5
	Siam	A-B	5– 6
	Siberia (Rus.)	G-H	2– 3
	Turkey	G-H	3– 4
(3) Africa (p. 474)	Abyssinia	G-H	5– 6
	Egypt (British Protectorate)	G-H	4-5
	Liberia	F-G	5– 6
	Morocco	F-G	4– 5
	Union of South Africa (Brit.)	G-H	7– 9
(4) Australasia (p. 481)	Australia (Brit.)	A-B	7– 9
	Maylasia (Europ. countries)	A-B	6– 7
	New Zealand (Brit.)	B-C	8– 9
	Philippines (U.S.)	A-B	5– 6
	Polynesia (Europ. countries)	C-D	6– 7

*All countries in this outline are **independent** except as noted in parentheses: Brit., British; Fr., French; Neth., Netherlands; Turk., Turkey; Rus., Russia.

CONTINENTAL DIVISIONS

A Comparative View of the Countries of the World and their Possessions giving Important Facts relative to their Geography, Physical Characteristics, History, Government, Peoples, Education, Religion, Natural Resources, Industries and Commerce.

NORTH AMERICA

Geographical Facts

Position and Extent.—North America forms the North and larger section of the "New World" discovered by Columbus. It is separated from Europe by a sea 1930 m. broad, from Asia by Bering Strait 60 m. Its main mass is triangular in shape, and its outline varied by large peninsulas, broad gulfs and numerous bays.

Area.—8,580,000 sq. m., including Central America (215,000 sq. m.) and West Indies (90,000 sq. m.). With Greenland area is more than 9,300,000 sq. m. Greatest distance north to south, 4,500 m., east to west, 3,100.

Population.—1920 (estimated) 138,000,000.

Physical Features. — The Plateau of the Cordilleras occupies the West, from the Isthmus of Tehuantepec to the Arctic Ocean. In the center it broadens out, and enclosed within is a "Great Basin" having no outlet to the sea. The highest summits are Mt. McKinley, 20,464 ft., in the N.; Mt. Harvard, 14,370 ft., in the Rocky Mountains; Mt. Whitney, 14,900 ft., in the Sierra Nevada; and the Citlaltepetl or Peak of Orizaba, 17,880 ft., in Mexico. The Appalachian Mountains in the East, form the second great mountain system and are continued to the North of the St. Lawrence in the Laurentian Mountains; the Canadian Lake Plateau and the Arctic Highlands. A Great Central Plain lies between these mountain regions, extending from the Gulf of Mexico to the Arctic regions. The main height of the continent is 2,720 ft.

Hydrography.—The great rivers of N. America are the Mississippi, which drains 1,240,039 sq. m.; the St. Lawrence, which has for its reservoirs the Great Canadian Lakes (95,060 sq. m.), and drains 532,100 sq. m.; the Saskatchewan, known in its lower course as Nelson, which enters Hudson's Bay; the Mackenzie, tributary to the Arctic Ocean.

Climate.—Largely determined by the direction of the mountain ranges. Five climatic regions, viz.; an Arctic region, whose mean temperature is less than 32° F.; an Atlantic temperate region, extending as far as the Mississippi, with abundant rains and dense woods; an inland temperate region, dry, with steppes or prairies; a Pacific Coast region; and a tropical region.

Political and Social Facts

History. — North America was discovered by Norsemen about 1000 under Leif Ericson, and temporarily settled as Vinland. Rediscovery by Columbus, who reached the Bahamas Oct. 12, 1492. Northern coast of North America discovered by Cabots 1497; coast of Labrador explored by Cortereal 1500; southeastern coast—Florida—discovered by Ponce de Leon 1513; eastern coast explored by Verrazano 1524. Mexico conquered by Cortex 1519-21. California coast explored by Cabrillo 1542; by Drake 1578-79. French settlements attempted in Canada 1540, permanent French settlement began 1608; English colonies on Atlantic coast early in 17th century; in 1763 Canada passed under government of British; colonies declared independence in 1776, and at close of War of Revolution — 1775-1783 — established the Republic of the United States. In 1821 Mexico threw off the Spanish yoke and became a republic. Confederation of Central American States 1823; dissolved 1839. Cuba declared independent of Spain 1898. Panama seceded from Colombia 1903. Important wars: Great Britain with France 1754-63; United States with Great Britain 1775-83 and 1812-15; with Mexico 1846-48; Civil War 1861-65; Spanish War 1898; World 1914-18.

Races.—82,901,000 Europeans, 14,367,000 Negroes, 16,021,000 American Indians and Eskimos, 1,168,000 Semites (Jews), 157,300 Mongo's(Chinese and Japs), 18,000, Asiatic Aryans (Coolies). Of the Indians, only 420,000 are within the British Dominions and the United States, while in Mexico and the other Spanish Republics they constitute the bulk of the population. Of Negroes, about 12,000,000 are in the United States and British North America, while 3,500,000 are to be found in the West Indies and elsewhere.

Religions.—Comprise Christians, Jews, Buddhists, Heathen.

Governments.—Political divisions: United States, Mexico, Guatemala, Honduras, Salvador, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and Panama —independent republics—and Dominion of Canada and British Honduras—English colonies. Principal continental islands include Republics of Cuba, Haiti, and Dominican Republic; U. S. Territory, Porto Rico; the English colonies, Newfoundland, Jamaica, and Bahama; and the Danish dependency, Greenland. British, Dutch and French colonies exist among the minor islands.

Natural Resources

Forests are of vast extent; timber one of the most valuable commercial products. In the north conifers prevail; forests of western mountains remarkable for giant conifers (sequoia, Douglas fir, etc.). Variety of deciduous trees very great; included are oak—45 varieties—maple, beech, birch, hickory, walnut, etc. In the warmer temperate regions live oak, pine, and palmetto also abound. Forests of tropical regions rich in mahogany, logwood, lignum-vitæ, and other rare and valuable trees.

Agriculture.—Vegetation scanty in extreme north. Central and southern sections fertile, and plant life in general varied and luxuriant. Indian corn, or maize, the potato, and manioc—a tuber found in Central America—native food plants of North America. Tobacco plant also indigenous to the country. Many of most widely cultivated plants and trees, however, introduced from eastern half of globe. Corn, wheat, oats, barley, potatoes, and hay extensively cultivated in central and northern sections; in warm temperate regions sugar cane, cotton, tobacco, and rice most important; tropical regions, sugar cane, sweet potatoes, indigo, tobacco, coffee, and cacao.

Minerals.—Mineral products unsurpassed in variety and richness. Western mountain ranges among richest in the world in gold; extensive deposits of gold also in Mexico. Silver widely distributed and extensively mined in western United States and Mexico. Richest deposits of copper in the world in Montana, Arizona, Michigan, and Mexico. Greatest mineral resources of United States is its coal. Iron ores of United States and British North America of vast importance. Petroleum wells of Appalachian system were long most valuable in the world. Lead, antimony, quick-silver, salt, cobalt, nickel, zinc, platinum, and sulphur mined. Numerous varieties of excellent building stone, beautiful marbles, and fine roofing slate also abundant.

UNITED STATES

Geographical Facts

Area.—Excluding Alaska and Hawaii, 3,026,789 sq. m., divided among 48 States and the Federal District. Land area, exclusive of Alaska and Hawaii, 2,973,890; water area 52,899 sq. m.; extreme length Atlantic to Pacific, 2,780 m.; breadth, 1,600.

Population.—1920, 117,857,509. In 1910 the whites constituted 88.9 per cent. of the total population, the remainder including chiefly Negroes, Indians, Chinese and Japanese. Of the total number of foreign birth (14.5 per cent.) 26 per cent. were Germans, 16 per cent Irish, 11 per cent. English and Scotch, 11 per cent. Canadians.

Physical Features.—Most prominent natural features. The Atlantic Coast Plain, merging into the Gulf Coast Plain; the Piedmont, at eastern base of Appalachians; Appalachian Mountain System between Atlantic Coast Plain and Mississippi Valley; Great Central Plain drained by Mississippi—most important river of North America. Cordilleran Ranges, including Rocky Mountains, the Great Basin, a dry, arid region without an outlet to either ocean and the Pacific Region. Principal rivers of eastern section; Connecticut, Hudson, Delaware, Susquehanna, Potomac, and James; chief tributaries of Mississippi, Missouri, Ohio, Arkansas and Red; largest rivers west of Rocky Mountains; Columbia, Sacramento, and Colorado; Rio Grande forms boundary between Texas and Mexico. Total coast line (straight), 5,715 miles; Pacific, 1,810 Atlantic. 2,349; Gulf of Mexico, 1,556; shore line of Great Lakes, 3,450 miles.

Cities.—Washington, with a population of 437,571, is the capital. Other large cities in the order of their population are: New York, 5,620,048; Chicago, 2,701,705; Philadelphia, 1,823,779; Detroit, 993,739; Cleveland, 796,836; St. Louis, 772,-897; Boston, 748,060; Baltimore, 733,826; Pittsburgh, 588,193; Los Angeles 576,673; Buffalo, 506,775; San Francisco, 506,676; Milwaukee, 457,147; Newark, 414,216; Cincinnati, 401,247; New Orleans, 387,219; Minneapolis, 380,572.

Political and Social Facts

History.—New England coast was probably visited by Northmen about 1000; by the Cabots, 1497-8; explorations made by Ponce de Leon, 1513; Verrazano, 1524; De Soto, 1539-42, etc. Earliest settlements made by Spaniards at St. Augustine, Florida, 1565; by English at Roanoke 1585-87, at Jamestown, Virginia, 1607; landing of Pilgrims at Plymouth, 1620; mouth of Mississippi reached by LaSalle, 1682, taking possession of river and surrounding country in name of King of France. French and Indian War, 1754-63. Stamp Act, passed by English Parliament, 1765, taxes, 1767, and Boston Port Bill, 1774, led to Revolution, 1775, and the Declaration of Independence, 1776. Independence recognized by France, 1778; by Great Britain, 1783. Constitution adopted, 1788; new government inaugurated, 1789; first capital, New York; removed to Philadelphia, 1790; to Washington, 1800. Louisiana purchased from France, 1803; Florida ceded by Spain, 1819; Texas annexed 1845; Mexican cession, 1848; Gadsden Purchase, 1853; Alaska Purchase, 1867; Hawaiian Islands annexed, 1898; Puerto Rico, Guam, and Philippine Islands ceded by Spain, 1898. Wars after Revolution include War of 1812 with Great Britain; Mexican, 1846-8; Civil, 1861-5, and Spanish-American, 1898, and World War 1917-18.

Government.—Executive power vested in President—elected for a term of four years—assisted by Cabinet of nine members; legislative in Congress consisting of Senate and House of Representatives. Each State represented in Senate by two Senators elected directly by the people; in House of Representatives by members elected directly by people; number proportioned to population of State. Judicial includes Supreme, Circuit, and District courts, Court of Customs Appeals, and Court of Claims. Supreme Court consists of Chief Justice and eight associate justices.

Instruction.—Each State of the Union has a system of free public schools established by law. The work of these is largely supplemented by private and parochial schools. In 1923 the amount expended on public schools of elementary and secondary grades was almost a billion dollars. In 1923 there were 601 universities and colleges, including the 347 co-educational colleges and the 144 colleges for men only.

Religion.—There is no State church, but numerous Protestant denominational bodies, chief of which numerically are the Methodists, Baptists, Lutherans, Presbyterians, and Disciples or Christians. Of the total communicant body, 35 per cent are Roman Catholics.

Industry and Commerce

Agriculture leads all other industries in importance; employs nearly one-half the labor of the country. Staple products: Cereals, cotton, hay, tobacco, sugar. Soil of Mississippi Valley remarkably rich; in northern portion of valley extensive crops of corn, wheat, oats, hay, potatoes, orchard fruits, etc., grown; in southern, cotton, sugar cane, tobacco, and rice. Western States have made notable advance, especially through irrigation of fertile, waterless soils. Fruits common to temperate and semi-tropical zones cultivated extensively in Pacific, Central, and Southern States.

Live Stock.—Rearing of live stock important industry in almost every State; western sections especially adapted to cattle and sheep. Enormous quantities of butter, cheese, and wool produced.

Fisheries valuable. Coast fisheries of New England and Middle Atlantic States lead in importance; Pacific Coast fisheries, including Alaska, second; those of South Atlantic, Gulf, and Great Lakes States important.

Manufactures varied and conducted on an extensive scale. Four industries with an output of a billion dollars a year each; in order: Slaughtering, foundry and machine-shop products, lumber, iron and steel. Next in order: Flour, printing and publishing, cotton goods, men's clothing, boots and shoes. Country second only to England in textile industries; leads the world in manufacture of iron and steel; New England chief seat of cotton industry. Woolen manufactures largely confined to North Atlantic States; silk to Paterson, N. J., New York and Philadelphia. Country excels in manufacture of machinery, electrical appliances, and agricultural implements; leads all others in production of flour.

Minerals.—Coal leading mineral product, Pennsylvania and West Virginia leading. Iron second, Minnesota, Michigan, and Alabama leading. Oil and gas, California and Oklahoma leading in oil, West Virginia and Pennsylvania, gas. Clay products, Ohio leading. Copper, Arizona, Montana, and Michigan leading. Gold sixth in rank. Colorado and California largest producers. Cement ranks eighth; silver, tenth, Nevada and Montana leading.

Forests. — Cover 550,000,000 acres or about one-fourth of the United States. Forests publicly owned contain one-fifth, those privately owned four-fifths of the standing timber. Washington has led for several years in lumber production, now followed in order by Louisiana, Wisconsin, Mississippi, Arkansas, North Carolina, and Texas.

Commerce of vast extent and importance. In foreign commerce United States surpassed only by Great Britain and Germany. Exports chiefly breadstuffs, cotton, meat, iron, steel, and copper.

POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED STATES

Geographical Facts

ALASKA.—Area.—590,884 sq. m.; extreme length, 1,100 m.; breadth, 800. Islands number about 1,500.

Population. — Total, 1900, 63,592; 1910, 64,356; 1920, 54,899; Native population approximately 35,000.

Physical Features. — Yukon district, between river and Arctic Ocean, includes Yukon Plateau, Endicott Range, and Arctic Slope Plain. Coast Range extends through southern Alaska, and includes Mount St. Elias, 18,024 feet, and Mount Wrangell, 17,500; farther inland is Mount McKinley—elevation 20,300 feet, highest in North America. Muir and Malaspina most notable of glaciers. Coast line, 26,364 m.; many excellent harbors. Yukon, principal river; length about 2,000 m.; nearly three-fourths continuously navigable for river steamers; second largest river, Kuskokwim; estimated length, 600 m.

Climate.—Great diversity of climate. At Sitka, coldest month, January; mean temperature, 34 deg.; warmest, August; mean temperature, 57; annual rainfall, 81 inches.

Cities.—Nome, commercial center of one of the leading gold-mining districts; population, 1910, 2,600; Skagway, headquarters and terminus of the White Pass & Yukon Railway, population, 872. Juneau, capital leading commercial and trading center; population, 1644.

HAWAII.—Area.—6,449 sq. m.; Group practically comprises seven inhabited islands and eleven smaller rocks or shoals, Hawaii, 4,015 sq. m.; Maui, 728 sq. m.; Oahu, 598 sq. m.; Kauai, 547 sq. m.; Molokai, 261 sq. m.; Lanai, 139 sq. m.; Niihau, 97 sq. m.; and Kahoolawe, 69 sq. m.

Population.—Census of 1920, 255,912.

Physical Features.—Chain extends from northwest to southeast; islands mountainous and of volcanic formation—partly surrounded by reefs. Surface broken and diversified by many valleys and cliffs. Most prominent physical features of group, volcanoes of Mauna Kea, 13,823 ft.—quiescent—and Mauna Loa, 13,675 ft.—active—on Island of Hawaii; Kilauea, on same island, 16 m. south, largest active volcano in the world; circumference of its oval-shaped crater 9 miles; depth, 1,000 feet. Extinct craters abound, clothed with luxuriant vegetation.

Climate.—Very healthful and equable; within the tropics, but lying in mid-ocean with prevailing winds northeast trades, perpetual summer without enervating heat; extreme heat and cases of sunstroke unknown.

Political and Social Facts

ALASKA.—

History.—First visited by Russians under Bering, 1741; Alaskan shore explored by Cook 1778; first permanent Russian settlement on Kodiak Island 1784; settlement established on present site of Sitka 1799; destroyed 1802; re-established 1804. Charter granted Russian-American Fur Company 1799, twice renewed; expired 1864. Alaska purchased by United States March, 1867, for $7,200,000. District Government provided, 1884; Federal Judicial District, 1900. Recognized as a "territory" 1906.

Political.—Alaska governed by civil code passed 1900 and amended 1909. Federal judicial district with four divisions. No local legislature; has delegate to Congress since 1906. Homestead law amended 1903.

Education.—In 1910-11, 81 United States public schools for natives were maintained, with an enrollment of 3,841 pupils, and an average attendance of 1,689. Instructions in agriculture given in sections where climatic conditions permit.

HAWAII.

History.—Islands visited by Spaniards 1542; rediscovered by Cook 1778; and named Sandwich Islands in honor of Lord Sandwich; during second visit, 1779. Cook murdered by the natives. Trade with natives established by fur traders from America en route to China, 1786. Islands united into a kingdom under Kamehameha I, 1791. Idolatry abolished 1819. American missionaries settled in islands 1820. First treaty with United States 1826, first constitution proclaimed 1840; more liberal one 1887; Reciprocity treaty, practically establishing free trade with United States, ratified 1875. reigning queen deposed, provisional government formed 1893; Republic proclaimed July 4, 1894; annexed to United States 1898; Hawaii Territory created 1900.

Government.—Government of Territory vested in a governor appointed by the President. Legislature, general elections, etc., like those of the other Territories. All legislative proceedings in English. All whites, all persons of African descent, and all Hawaiians, citizens of Hawaii immediately prior to its annexation to United States,

Industry and Commerce

ALASKA.—

Forests.—Mainly coniferous. Sitka spruce predominant tree; yellow cedar rare but valuable; besides spruce, hemlock, birch, poplar, cottonwood, alder and willow common in the interior. Dense and valuable forests in Southeastern Alaska.

Agriculture. — Climatic conditions for the most part admit of little agricultural development, but all the hardier vegetables—potatoes, cabbage, turnips, onions, etc.—and hay thrive in the more promising sections—the Tanana and Upper Yukon valleys notably. Wheat, barley, and oats have ripened here at government experiment stations. Grasses among the most valuable plant products. Berries of fine flavor abundant.

Fisheries.—One of the most valuable natural resources of Alaska. Salmon the most important; halibut, herring, and cod taken in commercial quantities; cod fishing banks among the largest known.

Minerals.—Mining, chief occupation throughout Alaska. Gold found in placer deposits and lodes. Principal deposits of Southeastern Alaska in vicinity of Juneau; of Yukon basin, in Fairbanks district. In Western Alaska most valuable deposits those of the Nome district. Prince William Sound chief copper district. Coal widely distributed, but developments insignificant: most valuable fields in Matanuska and Bering River valleys; workable deposits also on Seward Peninsula. Lead, tin, graphite, gypsum, and marble produced. Antimony, bismuth, cinnabar, and talc exist.

Fur Industry.—Most valuable fur-bearing animals, sea-otter, seal, beaver, silver and blue fox, mink, and marten. Pribilof Islands chief resort of the fur-seal.

HAWAII.—

Forests.—Higher elevations of mountains covered with dense forests, especially windward slopes. Excellent ship timber and many ornamental woods abound. Much fuel cut.

Agriculture.—Climate favorable to nearly all products of tropics and temperate zone. Sugar chief crop. Rice crop second in value. Other products: coffee; taro, the great native food; bananas; pineapples; oranges. Tobacco and cotton also cultivated. All rice and small fruits, three-fourths of taro, two-thirds of bananas, over half the pineapples and about half the sugar are grown by irrigation.

Live Stock.—Cattle and other European domestic animals introduced by Vancouver and succeeding navigators. On Hawaii herds of wild cattle roam the mountain forests. Hunted chiefly for their horns and hides.

Commerce.—Chief imports, groceries and provisions, clothing, grain, timber, machinery, hardware, and cotton goods. Exports, raw sugar, fruits, coffee, rice.

POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued

Geographical Facts

Cities.—Honolulu, capital, chief seaport, and center of commerce. Hilo, second in importance; seaport on east coast of Hawaii—largest island of group. Lahaina, on western coast of Maui; only safe port on island.

PORTO RICO.—Area.—including dependencies—Island of Vieques, Culebra, Mona, etc.—3,606 sq. m. Porto Rico is fourth in size of the Greater Antilles. Length, 95 m.; breadth, 35.

Population. — 1920, 1,299,809; whites, 589,426.

Physical Features. — Surface broken by mountain ranges, extending in general from northeast to southwest; altitude ranges from 1,500 to about 3,750 feet; highest elevation, El Yunque. Tops of mountains all cultivable. Island well watered by numerous rapid-flowing streams; longest rivers in north; estimated number of long rivers, 51; small streams, creeks, etc., 1,200.

Climate.—Porto Rico most healthful region of Western Hemisphere within the torrid zone. Temperature rarely reaches 100 deg.; never falls below 50 deg.; during summer never above 95 deg. on seacoast. Rainfall copious; heaviest north of mountains, fields frequently inundated by excessive downpour; south of mountains country subject to droughts. Mean annual rainfall, 64.5 inches.

Cities.—San Juan, on narrow island off northern coast, capital and leading city, has best harbor on island. Population, 48,716. Ponce, on southern coast, most progressive and one of the most healthful places. Population, 63,444. Playa, the seaport, two miles distant, seat of custom house and all consular offices. Mayaquez, on western coast, most healthful of all the cities. Population, 42,429.

PHILIPPINES. — Area. — Number of islands in group about 3,141—many mere rocks and uninhabited islets. Area, including Sulu Islands, about 127,853 sq. m.

Population.—1918,10,350,640.of whom about one million are non-Christians.

Physical Features.—Interior of all islands mountainous; many volcanoes exist; Apo (10,312 ft.,) on Mindanao, and Halcon, Mindoro highest elevations in Philippines. Between the numerous mountain chains are luxuriant plains and wide, fertile valleys. Rivers and lakes, numerous, especially in larger islands. Coast line irregular the numerous creeks and bays forming

Political and Social Facts

declared citizens of United States.

Education.—Hawaiian language reduced to writing and first book published in Hawaiian, 1822. Native seminary founded, 1831. Excellent system of free public schools (English) established throughout the islands.

Religion.—All forms permitted.

PORTO RICO.—

History.—Discovered by Columbus, 1493, and named by him Porto Rico; invaded and conquered by Spaniards under Ponce de Leon, 1509-11; natives revolted under Spanish oppression and were practically exterminated within a century; negroes imported as slaves. Three years' war for independence ended in defeat, 1823. Island granted representation in Spanish Cortes, 1870; slavery abolished, 1873; Porto Rico given autonomous government under a Governor-General, 1897. At close of Spanish-American War, 1898, island formally ceded to United States.

Government.—Administered by a Governor and Cabinet, appointed by the President. Executive Council constitutes upper legislative house and has 11 members; lower house, 35 members. Absolute power of veto over all legislative and administrative acts of the insular government held by U. S. Congress.

Education.—By the census of 1899, over 83 per cent of the population could neither read nor write; in 1899 school system was reorganized, and education made compulsory. University at Rio Piedras.

Religion.—Roman Catholic the prevailing religion. Island contains 71 cathedrals under Spanish rule; the appropriation for the Church made up nearly 5 per cent of entire revenue of island.

PHILIPPINES.—

History.—Islands discovered by Magellan 1521; first settlements by Spaniards made on Island of Cebu, 1565. Spain took formal possession of islands 1569; Manila erected into colonial capital 1571. Conquest of islands attempted by Chinese 1574; various contests with Dutch 1606-42; Manila captured by English 1762; restored 1764. Numerous native rebellions have occurred; most important those of 1822, 1841, 1872 and 1896. Philippines ceded by Spain to the United States, 1898.

Government.—The whole of the Archipelago is now under civil government; in the Moro Province

Industry and Commerce

PORTO RICO.—

Agriculture.—Soil extremely fertile and intensely cultivated. Plantations chiefly on coast plains and in valleys of rivers; irrigation, necessary to successful cultivation of large part of land in southern districts, unsystematically carried on. Sugar, introduced from Canaries through Santo Domingo, also a staple production. Chief products of the island are sugar, tobacco, coffee, pineapple, grapefruit, oranges, and other tropical fruits, sea island cotton, textile fibers, vegetables; figs, date palms, and tamarinds grow readily.

Live Stock.—Extensive district in northeast especially adapted for raising cattle; pastures, covered with luxuriant grasses and abounding in running water. Principal draft animal of island a superior breed of oxen, especially adapted to conditions of the country. Native horses also raised. Island of Vieques large producer of beef cattle.

Manufactures. — Sugar-making, coffee mills for preparing coffee for shipment, chocolate manufactories, and the manufacture of straw hats, baskets, rush pack saddles, cigars, cigarettes, and a coarse grade of plug tobacco most important.

Minerals.—Valuable salt deposits worked at Guaniza, Salinas, and Cabo Rojo. Sulphides of copper and magnetic oxides of iron found in large quantities. Gold found in many mountain streams; worked by natives by primitive processes. Marble, lignite, and amber also occur; the two latter chiefly at Utuado and Moca. Clays of superior quality plentiful.

Commerce.—Chief imports, textiles, provisions, iron and steel, and manufactures of wood, etc. Exports; sugar is the most important. Coffee, leaf tobacco and oranges also important. Free trade with United States proclaimed 1901.

PHILIPPINES.—

Forests extensive; practically untouched. Mountain ranges in general thickly clothed with trees. Many varieties of rare hardwoods, suitable for interior woodworking, furniture, shipbuilding, etc., abound, other trees afford dyewoods, gums, resins, and flowers used in manufacture of perfumery. Numerous palms — including cocoanut — and bamboos grow in profusion. Tropical fruits abundant. Pineapples grown chiefly for fiber from which the beautiful pina cloth is woven.

Agriculture is in a primitive condition. Large proportion of cultivable area entirely undeveloped. Soil of extraordinary richness and

POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued

Geographical Facts

many natural harbors; eastern coast steep and rugged.

Climate.—Continual summer. Hottest season from March to May; most islands receive rain during southwest monsoon; rainy season, beginning middle of April, lasts six months; dry season other half of year. On all coasts facing Pacific Ocean seasons reverse of above; hottest months June, July and August. Greater part of archipelago periodically disturbed by terrific hurricanes. Earthquakes frequent. Islands in general healthful, excepting in marshy districts, where malaria exists; rate of mortality low.

Cities.—Manila, capital of islands, founded 1571 by Spaniards; situated on western coast of Luzon. Population, 234,409. Bauan, on Luzon Island, in great hemp-growing district; population, 39,094. Lipa, inland trading center on Luzon Island, population, 37,934. Argao, in Cebu Island in great cacao region, 35,448. Laoag, port of northwestern Luzon; exports chiefly rice, 34,454. Iloilo, port on southeastern coast of Island of Panay. Has sheltered harbor with excellent anchorage. Population, 19,054. Cebu, on eastern coast of Cebu Island, capital of Colony from 1565 to 1571. Population, 31,079.

Political and Social Facts

comprising parts of Mindanao and the Sulu Islands, most of the civil offices, including that of governor, have been filled by military officers, but these are being gradually replaced. The central government is composed of the Governor-General, who is the chief executive and President of the Philippine Commission, and eight Commissioners (four Americans and four Filipinos).

Education is under the direction of Secretary of Public Instruction; the Archipelago is divided into 36 educational divisions. English is taught in all public schools.

Religion.—The dominant religion of the islands is the Roman Catholic, there being in addition to an American archbishop, 5 American, 1 Italian and 2 Filipino bishops, and 1 Spanish Apostolic Prefect. In Luzon an Independent Filipino church has come into existence. The Moros are Mohammedans, and there are pagan tribes (now numbering about 725,000) in some of the more remote regions.

Industry and Commerce

fertility. All economic plants of tropics successfully grown. Chief industries of islands production of hemp, sugar, copra, and tobacco. Leading product hemp, plant found wild on all mountain slopes.

Minerals.—Gold found on nearly all larger islands. Lead found in Luzon and Cebu; most important deposits on island of Marinduque. Iron containing from 75 to 80 per cent pure metal abundant in Luzon, Cebu, and Panay. Copper occurs in nearly all the islands. Sulphur in neighborhood of active and extinct volcanoes. Coal exists in many localities; petroleum also found in Cebu. Marble of fine quality exists; quarried in limited quantities. Pearl fisheries of Sulu Islands a source of wealth.

Live Stock.—Cattle, sheep, and goats introduced from Spain; number in islands not large. Domestic pigs and chickens numerous in farming districts. Carabao, or water buffalo, principal beast of burden; oxen also used. Philippine ponies found in large numbers, small in size, but possessed of great strength and endurance.

Manufactures. — Cigars the staple article of manufacture. Pina muslin of pure pineapple-leaf fiber, with rough cloth from selected hemp fiber, and some special cotton and woolen fabrics constitute the textiles. Straw hats and mats and cordage manufactured. Rough pottery, whitewood furniture, wood carving, bamboo furniture, handsome embroideries, and work in silver and gold are among local industries.

Commerce.—Principal imports: Flour, rice, wines, clothing, petroleum, coal, machinery, and iron. Principal exports, 1911: Hemp, sugar, copra, tobacco leaf, cigars.

OTHER INSULAR POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED STATES

GUAM.—

The Island of Guam, situated at the southern extremity of the Mariana Archipelago, is the largest island of that group. It was ceded by Spain to the United States by the Treaty of Paris in 1898, and having a convenient harbor, it is now used as a United States naval station. The length of the island is 32 miles. the breadth from 4 to 10 miles, and the area about 210 square miles. The capital is Agaña (5 miles distant from Apra Harbor).

Population,—1920, 13,275; in 1913, was: native, 12,448; foreign, including members of the naval establishment, 515 (American, European, Chinese, and Japanese); total, 12,963. The native language contains Chamorro and Tagal words, but Spanish is also spoken, and the use of English is compulsory.

A compulsory school system is now in operation, both in Agaña and in the villages. The children are taught in English, and learn also carpentry and other handicrafts. An agricultural experimental station has been established, supported by Federal appropriations.

The products of the island are maize, copra, rice, sweet potatoes, coffee, cocoa, and sugar, besides valuable timber. There are about 5,000 head of cattle, including 800 water buffaloes.

SAMOAN ISLANDS.—

The Island of Tutuila and all other islands of the Samoan group east of longitude 171 degrees west came into the possession of the United States in 1900. In that year Great Britain and Germany renounced in favor of the United States all rights over these islands, those to the west of that meridian being assigned to Germany. The harbor of Pagopago had, in fact, been occupied by the United States, under already existing treaty rights, 1898. Pop., 1920, 8,056.

The Island of Tutuila, 70 miles from Apia, has an area of about 54 square miles, with a population of 5,452. Manua and the other islets (Ofu and Olosega), have a united area of about 25 square miles, with about 1,797 inhabitants. Tutuila is mountainous, luxuriantly wooded and fertile. It is described as the most pleasing of the Samoan islands. The harbor at Pagopago which penetrates the south coast like a fiord, is the only good harbor in Samoa. It is a United States naval station, the Government having acquired there a land area of about 40 acres.

There are 4 religious missions at work: The London Missionary Society, the Roman Catholic (French) mission, the Mormon mission, and the Wesleyan mission.

WAKE and other Islands.—

The United States flag was hoisted over Wake Island in January, 1899, by Commander Taussig, of the Bennington, while proceeding to Guam. It is a small island in the direct route from Hawaii to Hongkong, about 2,000 miles from the first and 3,000 miles from the second.

The United States possesses a number of scattered small islands in the Pacific Ocean, some hardly more than rocks or coral reefs, over which the flag has been hoisted from time to time. They are of little present value and mostly uninhabited. The largest are Christmas, Gallego, Starbuck, Penrhyn, Phœnix, Palmyra, Howland, Baker, Johnston, Gardner, Midway, Morell, and Marcus islands. The Midway Islands are occupied by a colony of telegraphers in charge of the relay in the cable line connecting the Philippines with the United States.

The Santa Barbara group is a part of California and the Aleutian chain, extending from the peninsula of Kamchatka in Asiatic Russia to the promontory in North America which separates Behring Sea from the North Pacific, a part of Alaska.

NORTH AMERICA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
DOMINION OF CANADA **Physical Features.**—Great natural features of Eastern Canada, the Laurentian Mountains and St. Lawrence Valley; of Central Canada, Hudson Basin and great interior plains; Western Canada, the Saskatchewan, Nelson, and Mackenzie valleys with their numerous large lakes—Winnipeg, Athabasca, Great Slave, Great Bear, etc.—and the Rocky Mountains and Coast Ranges. Surface of Eastern Canada largely plains and undulating lowlands, in great part heavily wooded; Central chiefly prairie land; Western a region of lofty mountains with intervening valleys and vast primeval forests. **Area.**—3,729,665 sq. m., comprising all territory of North America north of the United States except Alaska, Newfoundland, and Greenland. **Population.**—By census of 1921, 8,769,489. In 1901 over 87 per cent of inhabitants, natives of British North America. English speaking, about 3,720,000; French, 1,650,000. **Cities.**—Population of the principal cities and towns, 1921: Montreal, 607,063; Toronto, 499,278; Winnipeg, 178,364; Vancouver, 116,700; Ottawa, 107,137; Hamilton, 103,143; Quebec, 103,000; Halifax, 70,203; London, 53,592; Calgary, 63,111.	**CANADA.—** **History.**—Earliest explorations by English under Cabot, 1497-98. First important explorations and permanent settlements made by French — Cartier's explorations 1534-35-40, Champlain's 1603-8. Quebec founded, 1608. Trade with Indians established in northwest by Hudson's Bay Company (English), 1670. Halifax founded by English, 1749; Quebec captured by English, under Wolfe, 1759; country ceded to Great Britain, 1763. Dominion of Canada formed by confederation of Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia provinces, 1867; Northwest Territories acquired, 1869; Manitoba admitted, 1870; British Columbia, 1871; Prince Edward Island, 1873; Alberta and Saskatchewan were made provinces in 1905. **Government, etc.**—Executive government vested in the King, administered through a Governor-General—appointed by the Crown for five years—aided by a Privy Council. Legislative power rests with a Parliament, consisting of a Senate of 87 members—appointed by the Governor-General for life—and a House of Commons, members of latter elected by the people. The nine provinces forming the Dominion have full powers to regulate their own local affairs, each has its separate Parliament and a Lieutenant-Governor, appointed by the Governor-General. Capital of Dominion, Ottawa. **Education.**—The Provincial Governments have control of education; the systems are all based on the principle of free education, the funds being supplied in nearly all the provinces by Government grants and local taxation. In Ontario, Quebec, Alberta, and Saskatchewan there are separate schools for Roman Catholics. Each province has one or more universities (20 in all, with about 500 professors and teachers and 10,000 students), and several colleges. **Religion.**—There is no State Church in the whole of British North America. The leading denominations are Roman Catholics, Presbyterians, Anglicans and Methodists. About 41 per cent are Roman Catholics.	**CANADA.—** **Agriculture, etc.**—Industries of the country chiefly agricultural and pastoral. Chief agricultural districts: Valleys of the Red, Athabasca, Saskatchewan, and Peace rivers, and extensive areas in British Columbia and Eastern Canada. Wheat, oats, barley, corn, potatoes and hay lead. Fruit-growing is an important industry in Eastern Canada; apples, pears, plums, peaches, apricots, grapes, etc., grow luxuriantly, extensive areas in British Columbia also adapted to fruit culture. Dairy-farming and stock-breeding have made great progress; cheese and butter largely manufactured. **Fisheries** of Canada a vast and widely distributed resource. Lakes, rivers, and 8,000 miles of shore fisheries yield an almost inexhaustible supply of fresh and salt water fish. Principal catches—salmon, cod, lobsters, herring, mackerel. **Manufactures** have made notable advance since adoption of protective policy in 1879. Saw and flouring mills, foundries, machine shops, and butter, cheese, and condensed milk factories rank high. Wood pulp mills also established; owing to great amount of spruce, poplar, etc., future of pulp industry must prove of vast importance to Dominion. Textile industries now have a greater aggregate capital than flouring mills; cottons lead. Leather and sugar refining important in Quebec and Nova Scotia, canning of fish in British Columbia. **Minerals.**—Mining now ranks among the most prominent industries of Dominion. Mineral resources of country rich and varied. Chief mineral products: Coal, silver, nickel, gold, copper, cement, clay products, asbestos, limestone, iron, natural gas. **Forests** cover an area estimated at 535,000,000 acres; constitute one of chief sources of wealth; lumbering a leading industry. **Commerce.**—Foreign trade largely with Great Britain and United States. Chief articles of export: Animals and their produce, wood and wood manufactures, wheat and wheat flour, minerals, fish. Chief imports, textiles and iron and steel manufactures.
ALBERTA.—Area.—255,285 sq. m.; length, 750 m.; width, 400. **Population.**—In 1901, 73,002; 1911, 374,663; 1921, 581,995. **Soil.**—Surface well watered, except in south, where irrigation is needed covered with a deep black loam, whose fertility and depth make it very productive. **Climate.**—Healthful, long, dry winters, cool summers, often called Sunny Alberta for its long hours of sunshine. **Cities.**—Edmonton, the capital, Calgary, and Lethbridge.	**ALBERTA.—** **History.**—Formed from the provisional district of Alberta and parts of Assiniboia, Saskatchewan and Athabasca. Admitted to the Dominion as a province in 1905. **Government.**—The executive is vested nominally in the Lieutenant-Governor, who is appointed by the federal government, but actually in the Executive Council, or the Cabinet of the Legislature. Legislative power is vested in the Assembly in the name of the king. **Education.**—Free public schools; preparatory schools at Calgary, Lethbridge and other towns. University of Alberta has been established by the Government.	**ALBERTA.—** **Agriculture** the chief occupation—1,250,000 acres cultivated in 1909, 80,000,000 acres wheat land; 18,013 homesteads were taken up in 1910, and much land is still available. **Live Stock.**—The luxurious grasses, abundant water, and dry winter climate are favorable for live stock. **Dairying** is developing rapidly, over two and one-half million pounds of butter were produced in 1910. **Minerals.**—There are enormous areas of soft and hard coal.
BRITISH COLUMBIA.—Area.—Total area, 355,855 sq. m.; length, 764 m.; breadth, 400. Vancouver	**BRITISH COLUMBIA.—** **History.**—Mainland occupied and entirely under control of	**BRITISH COLUMBIA.—** **Forests, etc.**—Forests among most valuable resources of Province.

CANADA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
Island, 15,937 sq. m.; Queen Charlotte Islands, 5,000 sq. m. **Population.**—523,363 in 1921. **Physical Features.**—Three principal mountain ranges traverse mainland northwest to southeast. Rocky Mountains in east; average elevation, 8,000 ft.; west of Rockies, separated by wide valley 600 m. long, are the Gold Ranges, with many elevations of 10,000 ft.; Coast Range averages 100 m. in width, mean elevation 6,000 to 7,000 ft. Greatest elevation on Vancouver Island, 7,484 ft. Country between Gold and Coast Ranges great interior plateau. Lakes numercus. Principal rivers: Frazer, Columbia, Stikine, Liard, and Peace. Pacific coast line, including indentations, 12,000 m., noted for number of bays, passages, and islands. Burrard Inlet most important harbor on mainland. **Climate.**—Entire coastal section very humid; annual precipitation ranging from 38 inches at Victoria to 95 inches at Prince Rupert, Coastal climate extraordinarily mild. **Cities.**—Victoria, on Vancouver Island, capital and seaport; large shipping trade and an extensive wholesale business. Vancouver, on Burrard Inlet, largest city and chief Canadian port on the Pacific. New Westminster has valuable trade in lumber and salmon. Nanaimo, on Vancouver Island, center of coal mining industry. Prince Rupert Pacific terminus of Grand Trunk Pacific R. R., now building. Rossland, an important mining center.	Hudson Bay Company previous to 1858. Vancouver Island leased by Company, 1849; reverted to Crown and became a Crown Colony, 1858; during same year mainland erected into a colony under the title of British Columbia; Vancouver Island incorporated with British Columbia, 1866; Colony admitted into Dominion of Canada, 1871. **Government.**—In hands of Lieutenant-Governor, an Executive Council, and a Legislative Assembly. Represented in Dominion Parliament by 7 Representatives and 3 Senators. **Education, etc.**—Schools undenominational and mostly supported by Government. Instruction free; attendance compulsory. Branches of McGill University in Victoria and Vancouver. **Religion.**—Church of England, Roman Catholics, Presbyterians, Methodists and Baptists are the chief bodies in the order named.	Coasts as far north as Alaska covered with dense growth of valuable timber. Estimated wooded area, 182,000,000 acres. Trees attain gigantic size on west slopes of Coast Ranges; among the most valuable are Oregon pine or Douglas fir, red and yellow cedar, and white spruce. **Agricultural, etc.**—Principal agricultural districts: Frazer Valley, southwestern portion of Vancouver Island, and Okanagan District. Throughout the Province and large areas of open country, chiefly pastoral or requiring irrigation for crops. Area under cultivation small. Country adapted to cereals, fruits, grasses, hops, flax, sugar beet, tobacco, and vegetables. Special attention given to fruit culture at New Westminster and Yale. Large tracts of excellent pasture; interest in dairy farming growing rapidly. **Fisheries.**—Large rivers and protected sounds afford splendid fishing. Salmon canning and fur sealing most valuable branches of industry. Deep-sea fisheries important and steadily developing. **Minerals** chief source of wealth. Gold found throughout the Province; richest district Cariboo. Coal deposits large and widely distributed: Comox—area about 700 square miles—and Nanaimo—200—most important fields; extensive deposits also in Crow's Nest Pass. Silver, lead, and copper mined; iron, platinum, gypsum, asbestos, plumbago, and mica exist.
MANITOBA.—Area.—Physical Features.—Total area, 251,832 sq. m. Surface in general consists of a series of successive levels—locally known as "steppes" or benches—the lowest lying near the great rivers, sometimes subject to overflow. Lands are chiefly prairie. In Laurentian districts of north and east, surface broken and hilly, abundantly watered, and with good timber and occasional broad, fertile tracts. Principal rivers: Red River of the North and Assiniboine, Among large lakes are Manitoba. Winnipeg, and Winnipegosis. **Population.**—In 1921, 613,008; density 2.4 per sq. m. **Climate.**—Healthful but one of great extremes. Cold of winters modified by clear, dry atmosphere; summers hot; subject to frequent thunder and hail storms and liable to early frosts. Average snowfall of Province, 62 inches. Altitude of Winnipeg, 740 feet. **Cities.**—Winnipeg, the capital, lies within the center of the great wheat-growing district of Manitoba and is the commercial and educational center of Manitoba and the Canadian Northwest. Population. 1871, 241; 1901, 42,340; 1921, 178,364. Brandon, second city in size and importance, important grain market. Portage la Prairie, important railroad center and grain market. St. Boniface, suburb of Winnipeg.	**MANITOBA.—** **History.**—Earliest explorations within the territory made by French; fort built at mouth of Assiniboine by Chevalier de la Verendrye, 1731. First visited by English traders 1767; various, rival companies formed; companies later united in Northwest Company and finally merged into Hudson Bay Company. Lands along either side of Assiniboine and Red rivers purchased from Hudson Bay Company by Lord Selkirk, 1811; Colony, known as Red River Settlement and also as Assiniboia, founded 1812; territory repurchased by Hudson Bay Company, 1836; transferred to Imperial Government, 1869; to Canadian, 1870, during which year as Province of Manitoba it entered the Dominion. **Government.** — Executive government administered by Lieutenant-Governor, assisted by an Executive Council of 5 members; Legislative Assembly consists of a single chamber of 40 members. **Education.**—Schools free and non-sectarian; supported by Government grants and taxes levied on municipal lands. Normal School at Winnipeg. Collegiate institutes for advanced education tributary to public schools at Winnipeg. Portage la Prairie, and Brandon. **Religion.**—No State church. Presbyterians, Church of England, Methodists, Roman Catholics, Baptists, predominate in the order named.	**MANITOBA.—** **Agriculture** the chief occupation of the people. Resources of country very great; soil exceedingly fertile and unusually productive, especially in Red River Valley. Experimental farm at Brandon, operated at expense of Dominion Government, has been of great value in development of agriculture. Staple crop, wheat; oats, barley, hops, flax, hemp, grasses, potatoes, and other root crops also grown. **Horticulture.**—Among cultivated fruits are found raspberries, strawberries, gooseberries, currants, and crab apples, with occasionally a few standard apples. Indigenous fruits are plums, several varieties of cherries, raspberries, black currants, gooseberries, blueberries, and grapes; excellent cranberries in marshy districts, and strawberries—found upon the open prairie are abundant. **Live Stock.**—Rearing of cattle the chief branch of this industry; export of beef cattle an important item in the trade of the province; horses rank next to cattle in importance; hogs and sheep are also commanding attention; poultry raising profitable in all farming communities. **Manufactures.** — Flour-milling chief industry: others, meat-packing, lumber, printing, foundries and machine-shops. Flour mills established in all larger towns. Oatmeal mills at Winnipeg, Brandon, Portage la Prairie, and Pilot Mound.

CANADA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
NEW BRUNSWICK.—Area.—Physical Features.—Total area, 27,985 sq. m. Surface generally undulating, elevation slight; highest point, 2,170 ft. St. John River, chief natural feature, drains 9,000,000 acres of Province; Miramichi next in importance. Lakes numerous but small. Coast line, 500 m., indented by large bays and fine harbors. Dense forests of pine, cedar, spruce, etc., cover large areas in north and northwest; leading source of wealth. **Population.** — 1921, 178,364, more than nine-tenths being natives of British North America. Density per sq. m., 14.02. **Climate.**—Subject to great extremes; of southern coast modified by surrounding waters; dense fogs frequent. **Cities.**—St. John, important seaport with extensive maritime and manufacturing interests. Fredericton, capital and port of entry. Moncton, port of entry.	**NEW BRUNSWICK.—** **History.**—Country settled by French 1639, and formed part of Acadia or New France until ceded to Great Britain 1713; settlers emigrated from Scotland 1764; 1783 great influx of American loyalists. Made separate colony 1784; became one of original provinces of Dominion, 1867. **Government.**—Administered by Lieutenant-Governor and an Executive Council. Represented in Dominion Parliament by 10 Senators and 13 Representatives. **Education, etc.**—Schools free and non-sectarian. Public, primary and grammar schools. University of New Brunswick, Fredericton. Roman Catholics, Baptists, Church of England, Presbyterians and Methodists, chief religious bodies.	**NEW BRUNSWICK.—** **Agriculture.**—Greater part of province wooded. Chief crops: Oats, wheat, barley. Other cereals also grown; also potatoes, turnips, etc. **Live Stock.**—Excellent natural facilities for rearing live stock—horses, cattle, sheep and swine. Increasing activity in dairy interests. **Fisheries** valuable; Province ranks next to Nova Scotia and British Columbia in extent and value of products. Total catch distributed thus: Herring, salmon, cod, lobster, smelts, sardines, haddock. Oysters and lobsters in great quantities and of excellent quality. **Manufactures.**—Chief manufacture, lumber, Salmon, lobster and oyster canning of great importance. Textile and paper mills, iron works, etc., established. **Minerals** varied. Bituminous coal deposits particularly valuable. Petroleum, antimony, manganese, iron ore, silver, gold, and plumbago exist.
NOVA SCOTIA. — Area. — Physical Features.—Area, 21,428 sq. m. Surface diversified by lofty hills, broad valleys, numerous lakes and rivers. Chief river, Annapolis Cobequid Mountains in the north (1,200 ft.). Coast line, 1,200 m.; shores abrupt and irregular, with many inlets and fine harbors, especially in southeast; deep water close to land. Forests abound in excellent timber; lumbering important. **Population.** — 1921, 523,837; average density per sq. m., 24.8. Inhabitants descendants of French Acadians, English, American Loyalists, and Scotch immigrants. **Climate.**—Modified by Gulf Stream, temperate and healthful; more equable than that of any other Province. Dense fogs on Atlantic coast. **Cities.**—Halifax, capital and chief city; principal naval station in British North America. Sydney, seaport with fine harbor; in vicinity of extensive coal mines. Yarmouth, chief ship-building town. Glace Bay, chief coal-mining town.	**NOVA SCOTIA.—** **History.** — Visited by Cabots, 1497; Port Royal (Annapolis) settled by French, 1604; British claimed country by right of discovery; ceded to France, 1667; retroceded to Great Britain, 1713; Cape Breton and Prince Edward Island annexed to Nova Scotia, 1763; latter separated, 1770; Cape Breton, 1784 but reannexed, 1819. Responsible Government introduced, 1848; Nova Scotia one of original provinces of Dominion, 1867. **Government.**—Vested in Lieutenant-Governor assisted by an Executive Council, a Legislative Council, and a Legislative Assembly. **Education.**—Free and non-sectarian. Public, high and superior schools. Victoria School of Art, Dalhousie College, Halifax; Kings College, Windsor; Normal and Agricultural School, Truro. **Religion.**—Roman Catholics, Presbyterians, Baptists, Church of England, Methodists, in order named.	**NOVA SCOTIA.—** **Agriculture.**—Extensive area of salt marshes around Bay of Minas; produces large crops of salt-hay and cultivated grasses. Mixed farming prevails. Hay most valuable crop; grain and root crops important. Excellent apples produced in large quantities. **Live Stock.**—Large area adapted to rearing of sheep and cattle. Cheese, butter, and condensed milk factories increasing. **Fisheries** rank second, after British Columbia. Chief catches, cod, lobsters, herring, mackerel, haddock, pollock. **Manufactures.** — Development facilitated by excellent natural advantages and abundance of raw materials. **Minerals.**—Coal area, 635 sq. m.; other minerals, gold, gypsum, iron ores, manganese, copper, and tungsten.
ONTARIO.—Area.—Physical Features.—Total area, 407,262 sq. m. Surface generally undulating, rising in the north to an altitude of 1,200 feet above sea level; greatly diversified by rivers and lakes. Blue Mountains south of Georgian Bay. Elevation 1,900 feet. Southern portion of Province drained by St. Lawrence and Ottawa rivers; Ottawa forms 400 m. of northeastern boundary; navigable 250 m. Water front extends along Great Lakes and connecting waters about 3,000 m.; contains many good harbors. Region north and west of Lake Ontario abounds in lakes. **Population.**—Census of 1921, 2,929,054, an increase of 16 per cent in ten years; average density for each sq. m., 7.2. **Climate.** — Generally pleasant and healthful; extremes modified by dry, clear atmosphere, and in southwest by extensive adjoining waters.	**ONTARIO.—** **History.**—Region around Lakes Ontario and Nipissing visited by Champlain, 1615, around Lake Superior by fur traders, 1660; Lake Huron district claimed by Perrot for France, 1671. Niagara founded by La Salle, 1679. Toronto founded, 1749. Territory originally formed part of Province of Quebec; became a separate province in 1791 under name of Upper Canada; reunited to Quebec, 1841; separated, 1867, and entered the new Dominion as Province of Ontario. **Government.**—Executive Government vested in Lieutenant-Governor, aided by an Executive Council of 7 members; Legislative in an Assembly of 106 members, elected for 4 years; sessions annual. **Education, etc.**—School system under control of Minister of Education. Law provides for maintenance of separate schools for	**ONTARIO.—** **Forests.** — Northern Ontario clothed with dense forests abounding in valuable timber. Large areas covered with white pine, commercially the most valuable tree; spruce, next in importance, found almost everywhere in large quantities; affords the most desirable material for wood pulp. Other valuable timber trees are oak, ash, elm, maple, hickory, larch, balsam, fir, linden, sycamore, black cherry, walnut, and butternut. **Agriculture** leading industry. Agricultural college near Guelph has done much to promote improvements in all branches of farming. **Horticulture.**—Fruit farming successfully pursued in southwest. Province noted for its superior apples; grown largely in all lake counties.

CANADA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
Cities.—Toronto, seat of Provincial Government; has fine harbor. Chief trade and educational center. Hamilton, at head of navigation on Lake Ontario, "the Canadian Birmingham." Ottawa, capital of Dominion and second city; extensive industries mainly connected with the lumber trade. London, manufacturing and commercial center. Brantford, agricultural implements and other industries. Kingston, important naval and military station.	Roman Catholics. Education practically free; attendance compulsory between the ages of 7 and 13. There were 54 model schools and 5 art schools in 1902. Universities at Toronto, Kingston, and Ottawa. School of Mining, Kingston. **Religion.**—Methodists, Presbyterians, Church of England, Roman Catholics, Baptists predominate.	**Live Stock, etc.**—Stock raising and dairy farming are constantly increasing sources of profit. Special attention is given the breeding of fine cattle and sheep. Ontario one of foremost dairy countries. Manufacture of cheese has attained large proportions; product of superior quality. Butter of excellent quality made. **Fisheries.**—Great Lakes principal source of Ontario's fish supply. Chief catches, herring, whitefish, and salmon-trout. Waters of Rainy River District support important and extensive fisheries. **Manufactures.** — Abundant water power affords unusual industrial facilities; leading manufacturing province. Principal industries, lumber, flour, clothing, slaughtering, dairy, and foundry products, textiles, smelting, farm machinery, leather. **Minerals.**—Mineral resources varied and widely distributed.
PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.—Area.—2,184 sq. m.; breadth, 4 to 35 m.; greatest length, 150 m. **Population.**—1921, 88,615. Most densely populated province; average density per square mile, 42.2. Of inhabitants over nine-tenths natives of British North America. **Physical Features.** — Surface rolling and well watered; greatest elevation about 500 feet. Deeply indented coast line bordered with several small islands. **Climate.**—Milder than that of adjoining continent and markedly healthful. Winters long and cold; summer heat modified by sea breezes. **Cities.**—Charlottetown, capital; population, 1911, 11,203; Summerside, excellent harbor, good export trade; population, 2,678; Georgetown, seaport, with good trade; center of shipbuilding.	Region west of Lake Superior rich in iron ore. Most important gold regions those of Rainy River District Cobalt mines principal silver producers. Richest petroleum districts Oil Springs and Petrolia; natural gas also produced. Nickel and copper near Sudbury; corundum in Hastings County Salt area, 1,200 sq. m.; clays, mica, asbestos, and building stone abundant. Nickel, cement, copper, important industries. **PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.—History.**—Visited by Cartier 1534; first named Isle St. Jean; settled by French; became definite possession of Great Britain 1758. Separate Government established 1768; first parliament called 1773; name changed to Prince Edward Island 1799; admitted into Dominion 1873. **Government.**—Vested in Lieutenant-Governor, and Executive council, and a Legislative Assembly. **Education.**—Schools free and non-sectarian; partly supported by Government. **Religion.**—Over 44 per cent of population Roman Catholic. Members of leading creeds, Roman Catholic, Presbyterian, Methodist, Church of England, Baptists.	**PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.—Agriculture** leading pursuit. Fruit culture successful. Oats an important crop. Conditions of island favorable for live-stock industry; large numbers of horses and cattle reared; particular attention given to fine breeds. Rapid development of dairy interests. **Fisheries** important and capable of great development. Chief catches, lobster, herring, oysters, cod, mackerel, hake.
QUEBEC.— Area. — Physical Features.—Area, 706,834 sq. m. Surface greatly diversified; characterized by numerous rivers and lakes. St. Lawrence River—basin of this system comprises southern part of Province—traverses the country from southwest to northeast between two principal mountain ranges; Shickshock or Notre Dame Mountains (Mount Logan, 3,767 ft.) south of river; Laurentian, average height 1,600 ft., north. Laurentides National Park with magnificent forests and lakes, near city of Quebec. **Population.** — 1921, 2,349,067; average density per sq. m., 3.3. Over three-fourths of population of French descent, retaining original language and customs. Official proclamations printed in both French and English. **Climate.** — Variable. Winters long, cold intense; severity, however, greatly modified by dry, bracing atmosphere; snowfall heavy. Summers warm and pleasant. **Cities.** — Montreal, metropolis and chief commercial city of Canada; situated on Island of Montreal at head of ocean navigation. Quebec, capital and second city in size. Most strongly fortified city on west-	**QUEBEC.—History.**—Territory discovered by Sebastian Cabot 1497; first important explorations and earliest settlements made by French under Cartier 1535-41; explorations by Champlain, 1603, who made first permanent settlement at Quebec, 1608. Quebec captured by English 1759; entire territory including present province of Ontario, ceded to English 1763; Province of Quebec organized 1774. Divided into Upper and Lower Canada 1791; reunited as United Provinces of Canada 1841; separated and provinces of Quebec and Ontario established 1867. **Government.**—Executive vested in a Lieutenant-Governor appointed by the Governor-General, assisted by an Executive Council, which is composed of 7 members. There is a Legislative Council of 24 members and a Legislative Assembly of 74 members. **Education.**—Under control of Superintendent of Public Instruction. Separate schools are maintained for Roman Catholics. Funds secured partly by local taxation, partly by Government grants. Among other educational institutions, 660 model schools, 217 academies, 10 normal schools,	**QUEBEC.—Forests** comprise about 120,000,000 acres; constitute one of leading sources of wealth. Pine, spruce, ash, birch, walnut, maple, and many other varieties of valuable timber abundant. Spruce largely manufactured into wood pulp. Lumber interests of vast importance. **Agriculture, etc.**—Agriculture an important occupation; all farming interests advancing rapidly. Soil in northeast poor and thin; good in southeast. Oats, wheat, barley, rye, buckwheat, hay, and root crops successfully grown; in more favored sections Indian corn, hemp, flax, and tobacco. Province second in value of fruits; apples, plums, and small fruits largely produced; grape culture in southern and western sections a profitable and growing industry. **Live Stock, etc.**—Leading province in dairy products, chiefly butter and cheese. Cattle reared in large numbers for export to English markets and for the dairy. **Fisheries** extensively pursued in Gulf of St. Lawrence, on coast of Labrador, Gaspé Peninsula, and Magdalen Islands; industry has attained large proportions. Chief catches are cod, herring,

CANADA —Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
ern continent; important seaport, with large exports of lumber. Hull manufactures paper, pulp, lumber, etc. Sherbrooke has iron-working industries, and largest woolen mills in Canada.	18 Roman Catholic classical colleges, 4 universities, 10 schools of arts and design. **Religion.**—Roman Catholic the prevailing religion. Leading denominations: Roman Catholic, Church of England, Presbyterian, Methodist, Baptist.	salmon, lobsters, mackerel, etc. **Manufactures.**—Province ranks second in Dominion in quantity and value of manufactures. Chief products: Lumber, cheese, boots and shoes, textiles, tobacco, sugar, iron and steel products, clothing, leather, paper, and flour. **Minerals.**—Quebec rich in minerals: deposits of gold found in District of Beauce; copper in eastern townships. Valuable deposit of hematite iron ore near Hull; large deposits of chromic iron discovered in Coleraine 1895. Asbestos occurs in large quantities. Petroleum found in Gaspé County.
	Phosphate rock mines, in Ottawa Valley have been extensively worked. Mica of superior quality exists in Saguenay district; also found in Ottawa and Pontiac districts. Peat deposits large and valuable. Limestone area large. Lead, silver, and platinum exist.	
SASKATCHEWAN. — Area. — 251,700 sq. m.; length, 760 m. **Climate.**—Clear and dry atmosphere, comparatively light precipitation, equable temperature during winter. **Population.**—In 1921, 701,390. **Cities.** — Regina, the capital; Saskatoon, seat of University of Saskatchewan; Moosejaw, and Prince Albert.	**SASKATCHEWAN.—** **History.**—Formed from parts of the provisional districts of Assiniboia, Saskatchewan and Athabasca; admitted to the Dominion, 1905. **Education.**—School districts are established by the government; a university has been established at Saskatoon, a collegiate institute at Regina.	**SASKATCHEWAN.—** **Agriculture, etc.**—Essentially a wheat-growing country; leads all other provinces in wheat production. Lumbering extensively carried on. **Live Stock.**—Swine industry has developed rapidly. Cattle raising is carried on to some extent. **Dairying.**—Natural conditions are eminently suitable for mixed farming and dairying.
NEWFOUNDLAND. — Area. — 42,734 sq. m.; including coast of Labrador, 49,734. Extreme width, 300 m.; length, 419. **Physical Features.** — Surface diversified by hills, rivers, and lakes. Chief rivers, Exploits and Gander; largest lake, Grand. Coast line, 1,200 m. The "Grand Bank" extends eastward from Newfoundland about 600 m.; vast submarine plateau. Extensive pine forests; lumbering, pulp-wood, and shipbuilding growing industries. **Climate.**—Healthful and milder than that of Canada; summers short and warm; southern coast subject to fogs. **Population.** — 1920, 263,683; Labrador coast, 3,647. **Cities.**—St. John's, capital and fortified city; fine harbor; population, 34,045; Harbour Grace, 4,279 Carbonear, 3,540.	**NEWFOUNDLAND.—** **History.**—Country discovered by Cabot 1497. During 16th century settlements made by both English and French, between whom constant strife existed. Island ceded to Great Britain 1713; certain fishing rights retained by French a source of dispute; French shore rights extinguished by convention of 1904. Representative Government granted 1832; responsible established 1855. **Government.** — Newfoundland with Labrador a Crown Colony; Government administered by Governor, assisted by an Executive Council, Legislative Council, and House of Assembly. **Education, etc.**—Schools, 1907, Roman Catholics, 276; Church of England, 327; Methodists, 285; others 30.	**NEWFOUNDLAND.—** **Agriculture, etc.**—Chief products, potatoes, other root crops, hay, barley, and oats. Extensive tracts suitable for grazing. **Fisheries** principal occupation; value of fishing products being almost two million sterling annually. Cod fisheries most extensive in the world. Province important in propagation of lobsters. Herring fisheries productive. Seal caught in quantity for skins and oil. **Commerce.**—Chief imports are flour and other provisions, textiles, hardware, coal, etc.; exports, fish products, copper, and iron ores. **Minerals.**—Copper deposits, extensive; iron ore; coal and valuable deposits of silver and lead found; gold, asbestos, and petroleum exist. Building stones, marble, and roofing slate abundant.

CANADIAN TERRITORIES

NORTHWEST TERRITORIES.—History.—Territory tributary to Hudson Bay granted to Hudson's Bay Company 1670; North West Company chartered 1783; two companies united 1821. Fort Selkirk established 1848. Territory acquired by Dominion 1869. Gold discovered on Stewart River 1885; Klondike discoveries 1896-7. Provisional districts of Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and Athabasca formed 1882—from which were created the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan 1905. **Yukon,** made separate territory, 1898, under Commissioner; gold discovered in Klondike, 1898.

LABRADOR.—Visited by Norsemen about the year 1000; by Cabot 1497; Cortereal 1501; Hudson 1610. Annexed to Newfoundland 1763; placed under Government of Lower Canada 1774; re-annexed to Newfoundland 1809. **Area,** 120,000 sq. m. Newfoundland portion limited to narrow strip—10 miles wide—along coast. Surface rugged; coast irregular, with many good harbors, interior a vast table-land. **Climate** rigorous; ice-bound throughout winter, summer pleasant. **Fisheries** valuable. Exports cod, salmon, herring, seal, whale oil, and furs. **Population,** 1920, 3,647.

NORTH AMERICA—Continued

Geographical Facts

MEXICO

Area.—767,005 sq. m. Divided into 27 States, 3 Territories and the Federal District of Mexico.

Population.—1910, 15,063,207. Race distinction abolished by constitution of 1824; greater part of mixed races and Indians still uncivilized. Spanish the prevailing language.

Physical Features. — Surface a plateau rising from low coast plain by succession of terraces to 6,000 to 9,000 feet above sea level, Plateau is bordered on either side by mountain ranges which parallel the coast. Country diversified by mountain chains and many isolated peaks, all of volcanic origin; three rise above perpetual snow: Orizaba, 18,209 feet; Popocatepetl, 17,888 (both dormant volcanoes), and Ixtaccihuatl, 17,343. Sierra Nevada Mountains traverse Peninsula of Lower California; within this region earthquakes frequent; also in southern Mexico. Rio Grande de Santiago, Mescala, and Yaqui most important rivers. Lakes numerous; Chapala, 100 m. long by 35 m. wide, largest.

Principal Cities.—Mexico, capital and chief city, founded by Aztecs, 1325; finest city in Spanish America; has cathedral founded 1573, national palace, library—265,000 volumes—museum, and a military academy; connected by rail with New Orleans; population, 1910, 470,659. Puebla, one of chief cities, founded 1532; important railway center; has thriving trade, potteries, and iron and bronze works. Guadalajara, second city, has various manufactories; seat of a mint; contains university and an academy of painting. San Luis Potosi, railroad-center, in ranching district. Monterey, in rich mining district. Vera Cruz, principal seaport; founded by Cortez.

CENTRAL AMERICA

Central America extends from the Isthmus of Tehuantepec to the Gulf of Darien.

Area, about 310,000 sq. m., population, 4,500,000. Its narrowest part, at the Isthmus of Panama, is only 40 m. across.

Physical Features.—Similar to those of Mexico; elevated plateau in center with diversified surface and gradual slope to Atlantic; low coast plain on east. Cordilleran Range follows Pacific Coast (up to 13,000 feet high); in northern part extends from northwest to southeast; slope toward the Pacific steep. Volcanoes numerous; earthquakes frequent and often violent.

GUATEMALA.—Has an area of 48,300 sq. m. **Population,** estimated, 1,992,000. About 60 per per cent pure Indians. **Cities**—Chief city and capital, Guatemala; population, 90,000, nearly all Europeans.

Political and Social Facts

MEXICO.—

History. — Early inhabitants Aztecs and other Indian races. Conquered by Spanish under Cortez, 1521. Independence from Spain declared, 1810; warfare with Spain until Revolution of Iturbide, 1821, when last Spanish viceroy was deposed; empire under Iturbide proclaimed, 1822; republic established, 1824; war with United States, 1846-48, resulted in loss of New Mexico and California. Invasion of French, 1863; empire under Maximilian (upheld by French troops), 1864-67. French troops withdrawn, Maximilian executed, republic restored, 1867. Present constitution adopted, 1857; amended variously since. Numerous ruins of the ancient civilization exist.

Government.—Federal republic modeled on that of United States. Legislative power vested in Senate—2 members for each State and the Federal District—and Chamber of Deputies—1 deputy for every 40,000 inhabitants. President elected for term of 6 years.

Education.—Attendance at primary public schools compulsory; age, 6-16; at higher schools encouraged but not compulsory; English taught in the latter; 600,000 children in public schools. Institutions of higher education remarkably well attended. The Government has, at Vera Cruz, a naval academy having for its model the one at Annapolis, U. S. A.

Religion.—Prevailing religion Roman Catholic; all others tolerated; church independent of State, and no ecclesiastical body can acquire landed property. In 1900, 13,533,013 Roman Catholics; 51,795 Protestants.

CENTRAL AMERICA.—

Divisions.—Politically, country divided among the republics of **Guatemala, Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica,** and **Panama,** and the Crown Colony of Great Britain, **British Honduras.**

Climate.—Of elevated lands, temperate and healthful; low coast lands hot and insalubrious. Rainfall abundant everywhere, on Atlantic slopes almost constant.

GUATEMALA—

History. — Guatemala was conquered by Spaniards 1524; constituted kingdom of vice-royalty of New Spain; became independent 1821; formed part of Confederation of Central America 1823; republic established 1847. **Government** administered by President elected for a term of six years; legislative

Industry and Commerce

MEXICO.—

Agriculture.—Farming methods primitive. Government offers special inducements for establishment of agricultural colonies. Principal food crops of central plateau, corn, wheat, beans, barley, and rice. In southern and southeastern States coffee and tobacco extensively grown; in Yucatan henequen fiber (sisal hemp) produced in large quantities; rubber-tree and cinchona also cultivated. Other products, cotton, cane sugar, indigo, cochineal, sarsaparilla, cacao, pecans, vanilla, and maguey plant. Promising future for cotton and fruit culture.

Manufactures.—Output of sugar and molasses valued at about $13,000,000 annually; spirits, $10,000,000. Sugar produced, 1911-12, 160,000 tons. Cotton factories, 1910, 142; spindles, 702,874; looms, 25,017.

Minerals chief wealth of Mexico. Mining region comprises 80 per cent of area; yields 20 per cent of world's production of gold and silver. Other minerals, lead, copper, platinum, iron, antimony, asphalt, coal, bismuth, zinc, petroleum, salt, mercury, sulphur, tin, opals, etc. Leads world in output of silver.

Forests.—Mountain slopes and Atlantic low-lands covered with dense forests of rare and valuable trees and plants; included are building and cabinet timbers, dyewoods, and medicinal plants of great commercial value. Among the most important trees are mahogany, ebony, brazil-wood, logwood, palm, cocoanut, pine, cedar, oak, rubber-tree, henequen, ixtle, valuable fiber plant, cinchona, mulberry tree. cultivated extensively for silkworms. Forest, 43,933,200 acres.

Commerce chiefly with United States. Chief imports: Mineral fuels, agricultural and industrial machinery, woolen and cotton goods, animal products, liquors, and railway cars. Chief exports: silver, gold, copper, henequen, coffee, rubber, cabinet woods, cattle, hides, and tobacco.

CENTRAL AMERICA.—

Dense **forests** abound; mahogany, cedar, and dye wood largely exported. **Agriculture** encouraged by legislation. Coffee most important production. Bananas, sugar, maize, wheat, rice, cacao, cotton, and tobacco are other products. **Farm animals** numerous; great interest in cattle industry. **Manufactures** are chiefly textiles; making of furniture a valuable national industry. **Commerce** largely with United States, Great Britain, and Germany. Imports chiefly cotton fabrics. Exports: Coffee, hides and skins, bananas, etc. Gold. silver, and salt the only **minerals** worked.

GUATEMALA—

Forests abound in valuable timber, resins, gums, balsams, and medicinal plants. **Agriculture** chief industry; coffee the leading product; among others are sugar, cacao, indigo, tobacco, india rubber, and bananas. Breeding of cattle and horses profitable. **Commerce** chiefly with United States, Great

NORTH AMERICA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
	power rests with National Assembly. **Education** free and compulsory. There are government primary schools, private primary and secondary schools, and institutions for special instruction. Prevailing **religion** Roman Catholic; all other creeds tolerated.	Britain, Germany, and France. Imports: Leading articles, cottons, drugs, hardware, flour, silk goods, and yarn: exports; coffee, gold, silver, lead, indigo and sugar. **Minerals** abundant. Deposits of gold, silver, copper, iron, and lead are worked; other minerals have been located.
SALVADOR has an area of 7,225 sq. m. **Population,** 1,501,000—most densely populated country in Western Hemisphere. San Salvador, capital, founded 1528; repeatedly devastated by earthquakes; population, 59,540. Santa Ana, in coffee district.	**SALVADOR.**— **History.**—Salvador was conquered by Spanish 1524; independence proclaimed 1821; member of Central American Federation until 1839, when it became an independent republic. Executive **Government** rests with President; legislative with National Assembly. **Education** free and compulsory. Primary schools, higher schools, including 3 normal schools, 3 technical and a national university.	**SALVADOR.**— Tropical **forests** cover Atlantic slopes and large part of lowlands; mahogany, rosewood, logwood, brazilwood, sarsaparilla, and vanilla abound; in higher elevations, pines. **Agriculture** gradually developing; culture of bananas leads in importance; tobacco, sugar, maize, rubber, cocoanuts, and coffee produced; rice, wheat, and indigo grown. **Cattle** reared extensively. **Commerce** largely with United States. Imports chiefly cotton textiles; exports, bananas, cocoanuts, hides, and coffee lead. Honduras remarkably rich in **mineral** deposits, but development is inadequate. Gold, silver, platinum, copper, nickel, lead, zinc, iron, quicksilver, and antimony occur: coal also exists.
HONDURAS has an area of 46,260 sq. m. **Population,** 1920, 662,422; aboriginal Indians and descendants of Europeans, chiefly of Spanish origin. Tegucigalpa, capital; population, 38,950. Chief ports, Puerto Cortes, Ceiba, Trujillo, and Omoa.	**HONDURAS.**— **History.**—Honduras was discovered by Columbus 1502; formed part of Guatemala—vice-royalty of Spain—until 1821; withdrew from Confederation of Central America 1839 and established independent republic. **Government** administered by President, elected by popular vote; legislative power entrusted to Congress of Deputies. **Education** free and compulsory; instruction entirely secular. There are primary schools, a national university and normal schools. Prevailing **religion** Roman Catholic; freedom guaranteed all creeds.	**HONDURAS.**— **Forests** abound in mahogany and other valuable cabinet woods—timber trees, dyewoods, etc. **Agricultural** products include coffee—most important—cacao, bananas, sugar, corn, rice, and tobacco; India rubber also produced. Chief occupations of inhabitants cultivation of coffee and rearing cattle. **Commerce** principally with United States, Great Britain, and Germany. Exports chiefly coffee, mahogany, gold, rubber, bananas, cattle, hides. **Mineral** products, gold, silver, copper, and precious stones.
NICARAGUA has an area of 49,553 sq. m. **Population,** 638,119. Managua, on Lake Managua, capital; population, 34,872. Leon, the largest city, in rich agricultural section; population 62,569; principal seaport San Juan del Norte (Greytown).	**NICARAGUA.**— **History.**—Region discovered by Columbus 1502; visited by Spaniards 1523; under dominion of Spain until 1821, when it became one of Federated Republics of Central America; independent republic established 1839. Executive **government** vested in President; legislative power vested in Congress of a single House. **Education.**—356 primary schools, 12 schools for higher education.	**NICARAGUA—COSTA RICA** Dense **forests,** remarkable for hardwoods, cover the highlands, especially in the northeast; india rubber, tree-ferns, vanilla, and cacao found; cedrela, or West India cedar, largely employed in cigar boxes and pencils, abundant; on higher elevations oaks and conifers. **Agriculture** extending; most important products—coffee and bananas; cultivation of bananas greatest industry. Other products cultivated are maize, sugar, rice, and potatoes. Cacao rapidly advancing in rank as an article of export. **Live stock** includes cattle, horses, hogs, etc.; extensive grassy plains in southwest; excellent pastures also in highlands. **Commerce** chiefly with United States, Great Britain, and Germany. Imports: chief articles, cotton goods, flour, machinery, and railroad material. Exports: bananas, coffee, gold and silver bullion, cattle hides, rubber, timber. **Mining** industry flourishing. Several districts especially rich in gold and silver; other minerals widely distributed are nickel, iron, and manganese.
COSTA RICA has an area of 13,690 sq. m. **Population,** 1922, 576,581; immigration encouraged by government. San Jose, capital, founded 1738; seat of university and observatory; population, 1910, 29,660 Chief ports: Limon, on Caribbean Sea; population, 5,269; Punlarenas, on Pacific coast, population, 4,696.	**COSTA RICA.**— **History.**—Under vice-royalty of New Spain, formed province of Guatemala; became independent 1821; member of Confederation of Central America 1824 to 1839. Boundaries in dispute with Colombia and Nicaragua settled by arbitration during 1900. Executive **government** vested in President; legislative power in Constitutional Congress. Elementary **education** free and compulsory. State **religion** Roman Catholic; entire religious liberty accorded.	
PANAMA.—Total area is 32,380 sq.m. **Population,** according to the census of 1922 (including the	**PANAMA.**— **History.**—The republic of Panama was constituted on November	**PANAMA.**— **Agriculture.**—The soil is very fertile, but not well cultivated.

NORTH AMERICA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
Canal Zone), 425,185. Population of the Canal Zone, 23,757 or 12.9 per sq. m. The inhabitants are of a mixed race, comprising Spanish, Indian, and Negro elements, with a small number of temporary immigrants from the United States and European countries. Chinese subjects are estimated at 3,500. **Cities.**—The capital, Panama has 61,369 inhabitants; Colon or Aspinwall, 26,076.	3. 1903, having previously been a department of the republic of Colombia. **Government.**—The Constitution provides for a Chamber of Deputies of 28 members (one for every 10,000 inhabitants), which meets biennially on September 1, and for a President of the Republic, elected for 4 years, and not eligible for the succeeding term. **Education.**—The Government maintains public schools for free instruction; and a university, the principal teachers of which are foreigners. In addition there are about a dozen private institutions.	**Commerce** chiefly with United States. Leading products for export: Bananas, cacao, coffee, tobacco, sugar-cane, india rubber, ivory nuts, turtle shells, pearls, and mahogany.
BRITISH HONDURAS, Crown Colony of Great Britain, has an area of 7,562 sq. m. **Population,** 1911, 40,458. Belize, capital; population, 10,478.	**BRITISH HONDURAS.**— **History.**—Possession of country long disputed by Spaniards; conceded British territory, 1783. **Government** vested in Governor assisted by Executive and Legislative Councils. United States gold standard of value. Government maintains primary schools, secondary schools and two others with secondary departments.	**BRITISH HONDURAS.**— Extensive **forests** of valuable timber abound; mahogany and logwood staple products. **Agricultural** products include coffee, bananas, plantains, cocoanuts, Indian corn, sugar cane, and tobacco. Elevated districts afford excellent pasturage for cattle. **Commerce** with United States and Great Britain. Principal exports: mahogany, logwood, bananas, cedar, cocoanuts, and chicle.
CUBA.—Area.—Physical Features.—Largest of West India islands. Area, 44,164 sq. m. Island divided into two parts by great marshy depression, extending from north to south coast, in about 79 deg. west. Traversed by broken ranges of mountains; principal mountainous region in southeast; highest point, Pico Turquino, 8,320 feet. Western part largely an elevated region diversified by low, forest-clad hills and mountains, and well-drained, gently-sloping plains. Coast lands, especially in south, marshy. Island well watered; longest rivers in south; principal one, Cauto. Coast line, including all indentations, more than 6,500 miles; fringed by numerous coral reefs and islands; large number of excellent harbors. **Population.**—Census of 1920; 2,889,004; density per sq. m., 65.34, 74.3 per cent of population white; 25.7 per cent colored. **Cities.**—Havana, capital; most important commercial center; harbor strongly fortified. Numerous cigar and cigarette factories. Matanzas, chief industries, rum distilling, sugar refining, and manufacture of guava jelly. Santiago de Cuba has fine harbor and a flourishing trade; outlet for most important mining district. Cienfuegos, second city, with one of safest harbors on south coast, is commercially one of chief towns of Cuba. Camaguey, largest inland city, in agricultural district. Cardenas, another important commerical center; large trade in sugar.	**CUBA.**— **History.**—Discovered by Columbus, 1492; first settlements made by Spanish, 1511; during sixteenth century repeatedly invaded and plundered by buccaneers and slavers; held by English, 1762-63; ten years' war, 1868-78; at close Cuba granted representation in Spanish Cortes. Revolution, 1895, resulted in Spanish-American War, relinquishment of island by Spain, and independence of country under protection of United States. Republic since 1902. **Government, etc.**—President, assisted by cabinet of 9 ministers; exercises executive power; legislative power entrusted to National Congress—Senate and House of Representatives. Terms of President and Vice-President, 4 years. There is no Cuban currency and no paper money. **Education.** — Under military government of United States, public school system was completely reorganized. No other government department receives more attention than that of education. Highest instruction given at University of Havana; many institutes, and colleges for secondary education. Spanish prevailing language spoken.	**CUBA.**— **Forests** among most valuable resources of island; extend over large areas and include an unusual number of hard woods. Area of State forests about 1,250,000 acres. Mahogany, ebony, lignum-vitae, logwood, cedar, and pines abundant. Mahogany is exported and cedar is used locally for cigar boxes. Palms surpass in economic value all others, owing to their manifold uses. **Agriculture.**—Soil and climate highly favorable to agriculture; sugar and tobacco the staple products. Cuban tobacco superior to all others. Potatoes and other vegetables abundant; cereals also grown. All well-known tropical fruits with many other varieties flourish; fruit culture one of most promising pursuits in future development of island. Commercially, pineapples, oranges, grape-fruit and other citrus fruits have lead. Fiber plants numerous; best known henequen. Grasses grow almost everywhere; food, water, and climate, all favorable to breeding of live stock. **Commerce.**—Principal exports, sugar, tobacco, cigars and cigarettes, copper and manganese, fruits, woods, syrups, skins and hides; imports, cereals, meats, cotton and cotton manufactures, iron and steel, machinery, etc. **Minerals.**—Mining districts chiefly in eastern part; copper, manganese, and iron mines are worked in the Province of Oriente; iron mines very extensive. There are rich deposits of asphalt near Mariel. Gold also found. Iron the most important mineral produced; ore largely hematite and magnetite.
HAITI.—Area of island, 28,249 sq. m. Dominican Republic, eastern and larger portion, 18,045 sq. m.; Haiti Republic, 10,204 sq. m. **Population.**—Over nine-tenths negroes and remainder mulattoes.	**HAITI.**— **History.**—Island discovered by Columbus, 1492; colonized by Spaniards under Columbus, 1493; French settlements established in western part of island during 17th	**HAITI.**— Magnificent forests, rich in rare cabinet and dye woods, clothe the mountains. Minerals varied and abundant but practically unworked. **Agricultural** products, coffee,

NORTH AMERICA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
Estimated number 2,029,700. French the language. **Physical Features.**—Surface varied; island traversed by three principal mountain chains intersected by numerous fertile valleys and plains; Loma Tina, Dominican Republic (10,300 feet), highest elevation. Coast line, deeply indented, affords many excellent harbors. **Cities.**—Port au Prince, capital and chief city; has excellent harbor; population, 75,000.	century. Natives exterminated by middle of 18th century and negro slaves imported; revolution of negroes, 1791-93. Entire island governed by Toussaint Louverture from 1795, who proclaimed its independence, 1801. Complete expulsion of French effected. 1804. Spanish or eastern part of island separated from Republic of Haiti and became Republic of Santo Domingo, 1844. **Government** of Republic is vested in President; legislative in National Assembly of 2 houses. Term of President, 7 years, usually cut short by insurrections. Elementary **education** free; system still very imperfect; 400 national schools. Education made compulsory in 1910. Prevailing **religion,** Roman Catholic.	cotton, cacao, tobacco, sugar, and some tropical fruits. **Commerce** largely with United States. Principal exports: coffee, cacao and logwood and logwood roots, cotton seed, cotton; also hardwoods, hemp, copper and zinc; imports, cottons, sacks, machinery, and iron-work. **Mineral** resources undeveloped; **manufactures** insignificant.
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC. Occupies East half of Haiti; area, 18,760 sq. m. **Population,** 610,000, mainly composed of a mixed race of European and African blood. Santo Domingo, founded 1496, capital; population, 1909, 18,626. Puerto Plata, chief port.	**DOMINICAN REP.**— **Government** vested in a Cabinet Council composed of the President and seven Ministers. Spanish language prevails. Primary **education** free and obligatory. Number of schools, 1910, 526. State **religion** Roman Catholic; other forms permitted.	**DOMINICAN REP.**— Country is very fertile; about 15,500 sq. m. are cultivable. **Agriculture** and forestry leading industries. Cattle raising and dairy industry receiving attention. Sugar-growing is a flourishing industry. Principal products, tobacco, coffee, cacao, cotton, and sugar cane. **Commerce.**—Principal exports, sugar, tobacco, cacao, coffee, mahogany, logwood, hides, goat-skins, honey, copper and salt. Principal imports: Cotton goods, iron and steel, provisions, rice.

ISLAND POSSESSIONS IN AMERICA

BRITISH AMERICAN ISLANDS.—Bermuda.—Group of 360 coral islands, 580 miles east of North Carolina. Discovered by Bermudez 1522; colonized 1612; constitute British colony. Important naval base. **Area,** 19.3 sq. m. Chief products, onions, potatoes, lily bulbs; exported chiefly to United States, leading source of food supplies. **Climate** mild and delightful. Favorite American winter health resort. Civil population, 21,987. Hamilton, capital and chief town; population, 2,627.

Bahamas.—First point of discovery by Columbus, 1492, San Salvador (Watling I). Settled by British, 1629; ceded to England, 1783; British Crown Colony. Comprises 20 inhabited and many uninhabited islands. **Area,** 4,403 sq. m. **Population.**—53,031. **Climate** equable. Produces sponges, sisal fiber, fruits, pearls, and ambergris. Nassau, capital and chief port; population, 8,000.

Jamaica.—History.—Discovered by Columbus, 1494; colonized by Spain, 1510; became an English possession, 1655. **Area.**—Largest of British West Indies. Area, 4,200 sq. m.; including dependent islands—Turks and Caicos—4,424 sq. m. **Physical Features, etc.**—Surface diversified by picturesque mountains and fertile valleys. Highest elevation of Blue Mountains—principal range—7,423 feet. Island well watered by numerous rivers; has many excellent ports and harbors. Minerals unimportant; deposits of copper, lead, and iron exist in limited quantities. Mineral springs abound. **Climate** superior to that of most West India islands Temperature varies according to altitude and exposure. Humidity scarcely felt even on sea coasts. **Agriculture** chief industry; principal products, sugar-cane, coffee, bananas, corn, cacao, pimento, nutmeg, and all kinds of tropical fruits and vegetables. Area under tillage 1910, 273,047 acres; under pasture, 653,750. **Commerce.**—Principal exports, bananas, oranges, coffee, rum, ginger, pimento, raw sugar, logwood; chief imports, cotton manufactures, dried and salted fish, flour, ale, beer, and salt. **Population.**—1911, 836,998. **Cities.**—Kingston, capital and leading seaport; population, 57,379. Spanish Town, second city, 7,119. **Education, etc.**—Government elementary schools, 4 training colleges. High and industrial schools, supported by Government. **Religion.**—No established church. Churches: Church of England, Presbyterian, Roman Catholic. Methodist, Baptist, represented.

Government administered by Governor, appointed by Crown, assisted by Privy Council and Legislative Assembly.

Leeward Islands.—700 sq. m., population, 1901, 127,534, including 5,070 whites. Capital, St. John, Antigua, 9,738.

Windward Isles.—506 sq. m., population, 1901, 160,869.

Barbados.—166 sq. m., population 195,583. Capital, Bridgetown, 30,000.

Trinidad.—1,757 sq. m., population, 1901, 255,148. Principal products: Sugar, cocoa, coffee, cocoa-nuts, asphalt, and coal. Capital, Port of Spain, 34,037.

TOBAGO.—114 sq. m., population, 18,750. Commerce included in Trinidad.

FRENCH AMERICAN ISLANDS.—Guadeloupe.—619 sq. m., population, 1901, 157,800.

Martinique.—382 sq. m., population, 207,000.

St. Pierre and Miquelon.—Islands conceded French possessions 1713. **Area** of group, 93 sq. m.; St. Pierre, 10; Great and Little Miquelon, 83; largely unsuited to **agriculture.** Cod **fishery** leading industry. **Population,** St. Pierre, 1907 4,263. Miquelon, 505. St. Pierre chief town.

U. S. WEST INDIES*.—St. Thomas, Sta. Cruz (St. Croix), and St. John, 129 sq. m., population, 1901, 30,500.

DUTCH WEST INDIES.—Venezuelan Islands (Curacao, etc.), St. Martin, etc., 463 sq. m., population, 1900, 53,000.

*Bought by the U. S. from Denmark during the World War.

SOUTH AMERICA

Geographical Facts

Position and Extent.—South America forms the Southern half of the New World. In shape triangular, it extends 4,550 m. from North to South, 3,200 m. from East to West. Its coast-line is far less broken than that of North America, and there are fewer islands. Development of coast-line 15,700 m., or one mile to every 435 sq. m. of mainland.

Area.—7,420,000 sq. m., including dependent islands; greatest length from north to south, 4,592 m.; breadth, 3,230. Principal continental islands: Falkland, South Georgia, Tierra del Fuego, Patagonian Archipelago, Chiloe, Juan Fernandez, Marajo, and Galapagos.

Population.—Estimated at 48,000,000.

Physical Features.—The Andes Mountains extend close to the Pacific, from Southern extremity of the continent as far as the Caribbean Sea, and send a branch eastward into Venezuela. Their parallel ranges enclose several plateaus, among which that of Bolivia (with L. Titicaca, 12,540 ft.) is the most extensive. The loftiest summits are: Aconcagua, 23,080 ft.; Illampu or Peak of Sorata, 21,520 ft.; Chimborazo, 20,600 ft. Isolated mountain regions are the Sierra Nevada de Sta. Marta, on the Caribbean Sea, 16,700 ft.; the Highlands of Guayana (Roraima, 8,500 ft.), and the Brazilian Highlands (Itatiaia, 8,900 ft.). Vast lowland plains, covering altogether nearly 70 p. c. of the total area, lie between these mountains, and open out upon the Atlantic. These plains include the Llanos or Steppelands of the Orinoco, the Selvas or forests of the Amazon River, and the plains of the Rio de la Plata. Mean elevation of the continent, 2,490 ft.

Hydrography. — Nearly the whole drainage is towards the Atlantic. The three great rivers are the Orinoco (drains 328,000 sq. m.), the Amazon (drains 2,700,000 sq. m.), and the Rio de la Plata (drains 1,240,000 sq. m.)

Climate.—The Andes form a sharp climatical boundary, and while the rainfall is generally abundant to the East of them, it is deficient or fails altogether on the Pacific coast, from lat. 4 deg. S. to 30 deg. S.

ARGENTINE REPUBLIC

Area.—1,139,979 sq. m., divided among 14 provinces and 10 territories.

Population.—8,698,516. Spanish prevailing language throughout the country.

Physical Features. — Greater part of country immense grassy plain; central and eastern part of plain includes the region of the pampas; northern forms larger part of extensive tract called the Gran Chaco; western region mountainous; Argentine Patagonia more elevated and varied in character. Rio de la Plata—Parana and Uruguay sources—chief river system. Several large and beautiful lakes in south; innumerable small

Political and Social Facts

History.—Discovered by Columbus, 1498, landing effected near mouth of Orinoco; continental character ascertained before 1515. Northern coasts explored by Vespucci, 1499-1500; Brazil discovered 1500 by Cabral; mouth of Rio de la Plata entered, 1508. Straits of Magellan discovered, 1519; Peru conquered by Pizarro, 1532. First settlement at Rio de Janeiro by French, 1558; occupied by Portuguese, 1567. English, Dutch, and French settled in Guiana, 1613-74. Nearly entire country conquered by Spanish and Portuguese. Spanish colonies revolted, 1810. War of Independence waged against royalist Spanish armies finally resulted in establishment of various republics.

Population.—Consists of descendants of conquerors—Spaniards and Portuguese mixed races, and Negroes. Mixed races chiefly of European and Indian blood. Spanish prevailing language except in Brazil, where Portuguese is spoken.

Races.—13,360,000 Europeans, 20,062,000 American Indians, 9,072,000 Negroes, 200,000 Asiatic Aryans (Coolies), 33,500 Semites (Jews and Arabs), 56,000 Mongols (Chinese), 4,000 Malays.

Religion.—Dominant religion of all South American countries Roman Catholic; except in Ecuador and Peru all other creeds tolerated.

Government.—Political divisions: Republics of Venezuela, Brazil, Uruguay, and Argentina in the east; Chile, Peru, Ecuador, and Colombia in west; Bolivia and Paraguay inland; colonies of British Guiana, Surinam (Dutch), and Cayenne (French) in north; Falkland Islands (British).

ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.—

History.—Colonized by Spain middle of 16th century, created a vice-royalty 1776; proclaimed independence as United Provinces of the La Plata River 1816; war with Brazil 1825-27; name subsequently changed to Argentine Republic; later to Argentine Confederation, and finally 1860, to Argentine Republic, now its official designation. Patagonia and Tierra del Fuego divided between Argentine and Chile 1881.

Government, etc.—Executive power vested in President—elected for six years; President assisted by a cabinet of eight ministers; President and Vice-President must be Roman Catholics and Argentine by birth;

Natural Resources

Forests.—Tropical forests surpass those of any other region in extent and density. The many valuable trees include mahogany, rosewood, Brazilwood, logwood, gum trees, which furnish copal for varnish, and India rubber. Among medicinal and other plants of value are cinchona or Peruvian bark, and cacao, both well-known articles of commerce; Yerba maté, or Paraguay tea, the shrub from which ipecacuanha is obtained; sarsaparilla, and vanilla.

Agriculture.—Coffee, sugar, and cotton grown in eastern portions of Brazil in region of Andes; cereals in temperate regions of elevated sections; wheat an important article of commerce from Argentina. Cacao, tobacco, indigo, rice, potatoes, and yams cultivated extensively in various localities. Cassava, yielding manioc, Brazilian arrowroot, and tapioca, most important food plant in tropics; cassava and Indian corn staple food plants. Bananas, oranges, limes, lemons, pineapples, dates, figs, olives, and grapes abundant. On the vast grass-covered pampas of the south has developed vast cattle and sheep industry.

Minerals.—Continent contains inexhaustible stores of mineral wealth. Andes regions abound in gold and silver. Richest gold fields now mined those of Colombia. Guiana, Chile, Venezuela, and Brazil. Silver mining most active in Bolivia, Peru, Chile, Colombia, and Argentina. Diamonds found in Brazil and Bolivia; Brazil fields have yielded some of most celebrated stones in the world. Rich emerald mines in Colombia. Other precious stones are opal, topaz, and garnet; lapis lazuli, jasper, alabaster, and marbles also occur. Platinum, mercury, lead, coal, iron, zinc, tin, and sulphur mined. Copper mines of Chile among the most important in the world. Petroleum abundant, especially in Peru and Ecuador. Coal mined extensively in Chile; country possesses vast stores of nitrates, borax, and salt.

Industry and Commerce

ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.—

Agriculture, etc.—Great agricultural country. Chief products: Wheat, flax, maize, oats, sugar, cotton, tobacco, and grapes. Excellent European and indigenous fruits abundant; peach, apple, and orange trees now grow wild in many places; olives, figs, and raisins extensively produced in various provinces.

Live Stock.—Argentina almost unrivaled as a grazing country. Vast herds of cattle, sheep, horses, etc., reared. Production of wool one of greatest industries.

Manufactures.—Progress of manufactures notable. Chief manufactures, sugar, liquors, flour, and animal products. Eight large

SOUTH AMERICA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
ones throughout the pampas. Aconcagua, highest peak in South America, within the boundary. **Cities.**—Buenos Aires, capital of Republic; first city in size in South America; population, 1921, 1,676,041. Rosario, second in commercial importance; population, 235,310. Cordoba, seat of a University, and of a National Observatory; population, 156,000. La Plata, population, 119,000. Avellaneda, 105,000. Tucuman, population, 100,000.	not eligible to re-election. Legislature vested in Congress of two houses. **Education, etc.**—Primary education free, secular, and compulsory universities at Cordoba, Buenos Aires, and La Plata. Industrial School of Buenos Aires maintained by National Government. State church, Roman Catholic; all other creeds are tolerated.	establishments (1909) engaged in slaughtering cattle and sheep for freezing and export. **Minerals.**—Mining industry almost entirely undeveloped. Gold, silver, copper, tungsten ore, and coal are worked· galena, argentiferous lead, iron, bismuth, borate of lime, salt, and petroleum also found. **Forests.**—Large areas are covered with magnificent forests of rich hard woods. A large per cent of entire area of Santiago del Esterro occupied by dense forests; sawing of its valuable woods the leading industry of the Province. **Commerce** of Argentina has increased with great rapidity.
	Leading articles of import are cotton and other textiles, coal, iron, and steel manufactures, railway equipment. Principal exports are pastoral and agricultural, forest, and mineral products.	
BOLIVIA **Area.**—708,195 sq. m., divided into 8 departments, and two divisions called territories. **Population.** — 2,889,970; composed of Indians, whites, mixed races, negroes, and others, unclassified. **Physical Features.**—Western section, traversed by Andes, loftiest and largest plateau in America; Titicaca on western boundary most elevated lake of South America; altitude, 12,600 feet; area, 3,261 sq. m. Northern and eastern regions consist of vast undulating plains and high valleys of Amazon Basin. Llanos and pampas of southeastern Bolivia merge into the Gran Chaco in north. Volcanoes, numerous. Highest elevations, Illampu and Cachacomani, over 21,000 feet. **Cities.**—La Paz, capital, commercial center and largest city, population 107,253. Cochabamba, population 31,014. Sucre, official capital; population, 29,799. Potosi, population, 29,295. Oruro, population, 20,670.	**BOLIVIA.—** **History.**—Country formed part of Inca Empire. Under Spanish rule called Upper Peru until 1825; independence gained, 1825, and name changed to Bolivia in honor of Bolivar, who drafted first constitution. Allied with Peru against Chile, 1878; was defeated and later ceded its seaboard and nitrate deposits to Chile. **Government, etc.**—Executive branch vested in President; term four years; Vice-Presidents, 2. Legislative in National Congress of two Chambers. **Education, etc.**—Primary instruction free and nominally compulsory. Number of institutions for secondary instruction and for higher education. Has military college and schools of arts and trades. State religion, Roman Catholic; exercise of other forms permitted.	**BOLIVIA.—** **Agriculture, etc.**—Tropical fruits, coffee, cacao, tobacco and sugar cane flourish in lower valleys. Wheat, maize, barley, beans, potatoes produced—mostly for local consumption. Forests contain numerous valuable woods, among them the cinchona tree from the bark of which quinine is manufactured. Cocoa, india rubber, and quinoa are among other products. Cattle, sheep, and llamas numerous. **Minerals** chief wealth of country; nearly all known metals found; copper, tin, and bismuth mines among the world's richest. Chief deposits of silver in the province of Potosi. There are extensive deposits of coal and salt. Antimony, lead, zinc, gold, and borax mined. **Commerce** carried on chiefly through Chilean ports. Chief imports—cattle, provisions, wines, hardware, textiles, machinery, and clothing. Tin valued at about $14,000,000 was exported; silver and copper next in importance.
BRAZIL **Area.**—3,218,130 sq. m. Divided into 20 states and 1 national territory, and the federal district. **Population.** — Estimated, 30,645,296. White population largely of Portuguese descent. In northern provinces Indian element predominates; in eastern, negroes numerous. **Physical Features.** — Two distinct physical regions; Tropical lowlands of north and west and temperate uplands of center and south; northern and western districts include the "Selvas," or forests, drained by the Amazon and its tributaries; eastern and southern districts mountainous. Mountains and large portion of Amazon basin covered with forests; great variety of valuable timber and medicinal plants. Brazil noted for large, navigable rivers; Amazon drains 800,000 sq. m.; San Francisco, Parana, Uruguay and Paraguay are others. **Cities.**—Rio de Janeiro, capital, largest city, and principal seaport. Sao Paulo, one of oldest Brazilian towns, Bahia, second seaport; Pernambuco, has large export trade in sugar and cotton. Para, or Belem, center of Amazon River trade	**BRAZIL.—** **History.**—Discovered and taken possession of for Portugal by Pedro Alvares Cabral, 1500; coast touched by other navigators previously. Settled by Portuguese, 1531; invasions from French, Dutch, and British, 1555-1640. Became a vice-royalty, 1640, with Rio de Janeiro as capital. Royal family of Portugal fled to Brazil, 1807; Colony declared a kingdom, 1815; proclaimed independence of Portugal, 1822. Republic proclaimed, 1889. **Government, etc.**—Executive authority exercised by President; term, four years; not eligible for succeeding term; legislative, vested in National Congress. Each State has its own government, distinct and independent in local affairs. **Education, etc.**—Primary instruction free; compulsory in some states; in Federal District is under municipality; in States, under municipal and State authority. Trade schools in many States.	**BRAZIL.—** **Agriculture.**—Products of the soil and forests chief sources of wealth. Brazil leading coffee producer of world; crop, average 12,000,000 bags. Cacao, rubber, sugar cane, cotton, tobacco, cereals, vegetables, maté—Paraguay tea—fruits and nuts are other important crops. Rice culture progressing. Cattle industry important. **Manufactures.**—Industrial establishments numbered about 3,400 in 1910. Textiles, chiefly cotton goods, lead. Flour mills, sugar mills, and breweries also included among industrial establishments. **Minerals.**—Resources great but little utilized; gold, diamonds, manganese and monazite are among the most stable and substantial exports; coal and mercury are also mined; iron exists in immense quantities. Other precious stones, copper, bismuth, petroleum, etc., also found. **Commerce** chiefly with the United States, Great Britain, Germany, and France. Chief imports were coal, flour, cottons, codfish, jerked beef, railway material, and wines. Exports are coffee, tobacco, rubber, hides, cacao, sugar, cotton.

SOUTH AMERICA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
CHILE **Physical Features.**—Country lies between crest of Andes and the Pacific Ocean. Chilean Andes, eastern boundary, great natural feature of country. Saline pampas of north traversed by volcanic highlands; Central Chile diversified by well-watered plains and valleys—parallel ranges of mountains extend in this region to sea; Southern Chile, a region of large lakes, islands, and glaciers, with dense forests. **Area.**—292,580 sq. m. Extreme length over 2,600 m.; average width, 90 m. **Population.** — 3,754,723 — great majority of European origin. Central district most populous. Immigration encouraged by Government. **Cities.**—Santiago, capital; largest city in Western South America; has many public institutions. Valparaiso, most important seaport on Pacific coast of South America. Concepcion has large trade; chief manufacturing center.	**CHILE.**— **History.**—Invaded by Spaniards 1535-36; Santiago founded 1541; war with Araucanians extended over more than a century. Spanish authority dis-established 1810; re-established later. Independence declared 1818. War with Bolivia and Peru 1879-84. **Government, etc.**—Executive power exercised by President, elected for 5 years, assisted by Council of State and a Cabinet or Ministry; President not eligible to re-election. Legislative power vested in National Congress. **Education, etc.**—Education free; not compulsory. University and National Institute, Santiago. State church, Roman Catholic; all others respected and protected.	**CHILE.**— **Agriculture** and stock-farming important. Central region chief agricultural district. Large quantities of cereals, wine, fruit, and vegetables produced annually. Large numbers of cattle, horses, sheep, goats, etc., reared annually. **Manufactures** include food substitutes, alcoholic beverages, textiles, clothing, leather, wood work, and paper. **Forests.**—Nearly 200 timbers are indigenous. Evergreens attain gigantic size. Woods valuable for building, ornamental work, etc., exist in great abundance. **Minerals.**—Mining foremost industry; northern district the mining region; nitrate deposits most extensive in world. Enormous de-deposits of borate also; deposits of guano along coast. Coal, copper, silver, gold, iodine, and other minerals also produced. **Commerce.**—Chief imports: Textiles, oil, and coal, and machinery. Principal exports, mineral products—nitrate chiefly.
COLOMBIA **Physical Features, Area, etc.**—Area, 438,436 sq. m. West traversed by three ranges of Andes; highest elevation, Mount Tolima, 18,400 feet. Surface of east consists of broad plains sloping to Orinoco and Amazon rivers. Principal rivers of west, Magdalena and Cauca. Extensive forests yield many valuable products; India rubber, Tolu balsam, copaiba, vegetable ivory, cinchona — first studied here 1793 — and coca. **Population. — Cities.** —Population, 5,855,000. Bogota, capital; population, 150,000. Chief commercial towns—Barranquilla, Medellin, Bucaramanga, and Cartagena.	**COLOMBIA** **History.**—First settlements made by Spanish; became a Spanish presidency, 1563; a vice-royalty of Spain, 1718. War for independence 1810-19; Republic of Colombia formed, 1819; Republic of New Granada established, 1831. Name Granadine Confederation adopted, 1858; United States of Colombia, 1863; and later Republic of Colombia. **Government, etc.**—Executive rests with President—chosen for 4 years—assisted by cabinet. Legislative in Congress of two houses. **Education, etc.**—Primary education gratuitous, but not compulsory. Has national university and three other colleges. Prevailing religion, Roman Catholic; other forms permitted	**COLOMBIA.**— **Agriculture, etc.**—Small proportion of land under culture. Products include coffee, cacao, tobacco, sugar, maize, cotton, wheat, bananas, etc. Cattle, swine, sheep and horses, in order named. **Minerals** varied and of great value. Gold, silver, copper, platinum, lead, mercury, cinnabar, manganese, and emeralds are produced. Coal and petroleum deposits extensive. Salt mines north of Bogota government monopoly; great source of revenue. Emerald mines and pearl fisheries also government monopolies. **Commerce.**—Chief imports, provisions, cotton goods, and petroleum. Chief export, coffee; other exports—cattle, hides, rubber, tobacco, ivory nuts, mineral products, etc.
ECUADOR **Physical Features. — Area.** — 116,000 sq. miles; Galapagos Islands, 2,400. Country traversed north to south by Andes; contains some of the highest peaks in South America and numerous volcanoes; highest elevations, Chimborazo, 20,498 feet; Cotopaxi, 19,613 feet; between the mountains are several elevated table-lands. Principal rivers tributaries of Amazon; Napo and Pastaza largest, Coast line, 2,000 miles; affords many good harbors. Vast equatorial forests exist, affording excellent woods and medicinal plants. **Population — Cities.** —Population, 2,000,000—mainly Indian. Quito, capital of Republic and ancient capital of Incas. Guayaquil, chief seaport and trade and manufacturing center. Cuenca, third city; has cathedral and university.	**ECUADOR** **History.**—At time of Spanish conquest, 1533-34, greater part of country subject to Incas of Peru. Made part of vice-royalty of Peru, 1542; Spanish rulers expelled and country entered Colombian Confederation, 1822-23; republic proclaimed under present name, 1830. Country has since suffered greatly from political revolutions. **Government, etc.**—Executive vested in President (term four years), Legislative in Congress of two houses, members elected by adults who can read and write. **Education, etc.**—Primary instruction free and compulsory. For secondary, higher and professional education there are several institutions—principally in Quito. Religion, Roman Catholic; none other tolerated.	**ECUADOR.**— **Agriculture, etc.**—Cacao great commercial crop. Rubber, sugar, coffee, bananas, and rice also cultivated. Ivory nuts produced for export. Tobacco, cereals, and potatoes successfully grown on plateaux. Panama hats made almost exclusively in Ecuador. **Minerals.**—Ecuador rich in gold, mercury, copper, iron, lead and coal; large deposits of sulphur; silver and petroleum also exist. Mineral deposits, however, but slightly developed. **Commerce.**—Chief imports, textiles and foodstuffs; chief exports, cacao, rubber, ivory nuts, Panama hats, gold (metal and ore). Exports chiefly to France and United States.
PARAGUAY **Physical Features, etc.**—Surface largely undulating plains; interior, low hills or mountains richly wooded. Principal rivers, Paraguay and Parana. Various minerals, such as quartz, agate, opals, kaolin, iron,	**PARAGUAY** **History.**—First settled by Spanish Jesuits in 17th century; later by Spanish and Portuguese colonists; as Spanish province annexed to vice-royalty of La Plata 1776; united with Brazil 1821; revolted	**PARAGUAY.**— **Forests.**—Timber and other products an important source of wealth; immense number of hard wood and other timber trees; several species of dye wood; trees yielding resins and gums, as india

SOUTH AMERICA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
manganese, copper and mercury, exist. **Population.** — 1,050,000 — chiefly mixed races, descendants of Spaniards, Guarani Indians, and negroes. **Climate.** — Semi-tropical and healthful; winters mild; occasional frosts occur at night. Mean annual temperature, 75 deg.; rainfall abundant; greatest in September and October. **Cities.**—Asuncion, capital and largest city in Republic, founded 1536; seat of a cathedral and a National college; population, 99,836. Villa Rica, second in size and commercial importance; center of noted tobacco region; population, 26,000. Concepcion, flourishing town on Paraguay River, 250 m. northeast of Asuncion; population, 15,000.	1825; Independence recognized 1828; Republic constituted 1830. **Government, etc.**—Executive authority vested in a President elected for 4 years; legislative vested in a Congress of two Houses, a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. **Education, etc.**—Education free and compulsory. Private schools are subsidized by Council of Education. National college at Asuncion. State church, Roman Catholic; exercise of other religions permitted.	rubber, varnish, and quebracho, for tanning; also the valuable shrub Yerba maté. Medicinal plants abound in great variety. **Agriculture** the principal source of wealth; soil and climate adapted for nearly all tropical and temperate-zone growths. Yerba maté, "Paraguay tea," chief and most distinctive crop. Tobacco produced; cotton indigenous—grows abundantly; maize manioc, sugar cane, coffee, rice, beans, etc., also produced. Orange growing important; bananas, grapes, and other fruits abundant. **Live Stock** industry constantly increasing; large areas of excellent pasture favor a wide development. **Manufactures, etc.**—Production of quebracho extract; preparation of oil of petit grain, distilled from the leaves of the native orange tree, a lucrative industry. Chief exports: maté, jerked beef, tallow, hides, and quebracho extract.
PERU **Area.**—679,600 sq. m. Negotiations in progress to determine ownership of Tacna and Arica. **Population.** — Approximately 4,500,000, or 6.6 per sq. m.—less than one-fourth the population per sq. m. of the United States. **Physical Features.** — Surface largely an elevated plateau traversed by chains of Andes. Coast region arid, intersected by few mountain streams. High plateau of central section includes western part of Lake Titicaca. Montana consists of extensive wooded plains at the eastern base of the Andes, drained by Amazon—principal river—and its tributaries. Highest elevation, Huascan, 22,051 feet. **Cities.**—Lima, capital and leading commercial city; Callao, chief port; Arequipa, cathedral town of great wealth. Cuzco, center of rich agricultural district.	**PERU** **History.**—Under Incas and their predecessors civilization highly developed. Conquered by Spaniards, 1533-34; as vice-royalty of Spain, became, 1544, center of government of all South America. Declared independence, 1821; Spain finally defeated, 1824; war with Chile, 1879-84; was defeated and lost portion of territory. **Government.**—Entrusted to President; term four years; legislative in a Senate and House of Representatives. **Education, etc.**—Elementary education nominally compulsory. A central university—oldest in America—military school and school of mines and civil engineering at Lima. State religion Roman Catholic; others tolerated to limited extent.	**PERU.**— **Agriculture, etc.** — Cotton, coffee, cacao, sugar and rice chief productions. Principal coffee-growing districts in Central Peru. Coast region chief sugar district. Wheat, maize, olives, ramie and tobacco also grown. Attention being given to silk culture and viticulture. Valuable medicinal plants cultivated; district of Otuzco most important coca-growing section. India rubber and cinchona bark among other products of forests. Wool-bearing animals—alpaca, sheep, and llama. **Manufactures** chiefly coarse cottons, woolens, leathers, fine cloaks and blankets. Panama hats, gold and silver jewelry. Olive oil, cocaine, and rum extensively produced. **Minerals.**—Output includes copper, silver, crude petroleum, coal, gold, lead, etc. About 70 per cent of the world's outpu of vanadium produced by Peru. **Commerce.**—Chief imports, cotton and woolen goods, minerals, coal, machinery, etc.; exports—cotton, sugar, wool, minerals, etc. Chief exports: Sugar, metals, and other minerals, cotton, gums, wool, guano, cocaine.
URUGUAY **Physical Features, etc.**—Coast region low; interior extensive grassy plains traversed by low mountain ridges. Uruguay, principal river, forming western boundary; basin of its chief tributary, Rio Negro, occupies entire central portion. Numerous lakes and extensive swamps in east. **Area.**—Smallest South American Republic. Area, 72,110 sq. m., divided among 19 departments. **Population.**—1,494,953 — foreigners, 181,222. **Cities.**—Montevideo, capital and commercial center; Salto, limit of navigation on Uruguay River. Paysandu exports preserved meats; Maldonado, seaport and naval station.	**URUGUAY.**— **History.**—First settled by Spanish Jesuits in 17th century; later by Spanish and Portuguese colonists; as Spanish province annexed to vice-royalty of La Plata 1776; united with Brazil 1821; revolted 1825; Independence recognized 1828; Republic constituted 1830. **Government, etc.**—Executive vested in President; term, 4 years. Legislative vested in Parliament of two houses. **Education.**—Primary, Compulsory. University, Montevideo. State religion, Roman Catholic; others tolerated.	**URUGUAY.**— **Agriculture, etc.**—Most characteristic feature of country the vast pastures. Rearing of cattle and sheep leading industry. Cereal productions, wheat, olives, vegetables and fruits successfully grown. Tobacco cultivated. Wine produced. American ostrich reared in large numbers. **Minerals.**—Gold has been produced in paying quantities, and coal also is mined. Asbestos, antimony, graphite, copper-silver, copper-iron and iron found in various sections; petroleum, gems and semi-precious stones known to exist. **Commerce.** — Exports, live cattle, sheep, horses, cattle hides, jerked beef, mutton carcasses, tallow, wool, and ostrich feathers.

SOUTH AMERICA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
VENEZUELA **Population.** — 2,411,952. Evidences of an older civilization exist in rock pictures, ceramic remains, etc. **Cities.**—Caracas, capital. La Guaira, leading seaport. Valencia, finely situated commercial center. Maracaibo, seaport; export trade large. **Area — Physical Features.** — Area, 393,976 sq. m. Country mountainous in north and west; central portion bordering Orinoco vast grassy plains; surface southeast mountainous with dense forests Entire course of Orinoco within the country. Lake Maracaibo in north. Delta of Orinoco, basin of Maracaibo, and mountainous districts covered with forests; products, rubber, copal, sarsaparilla, cinchona, tonka beans, timber, dyewoods.	**VENEZUELA** **History.**—Country discovered by Columbus, 1498; settled by Spanish; Spanish dominion continued until series of insurrections 1810-21, resulted in country entering Colombian Confederation. Republic of Venezuela proclaimed, 1830. **Government, etc.**—Executive vested in President chosen for four years. Legislative in Congress of two houses. **Education, etc.**—Education free and compulsory. Normal schools, universities, national colleges. State religion, Roman Catholic; other creeds tolerated.	**VENEZUELA.**— **Agriculture** leading industry; coffee—estates number 33,000. Cacao estates, 5,000. Annual production of sugar about 3,000 tons. Cultivation of tobacco an important industry. Rice and other cereals, cotton, etc., also grown. Number of cattle, goats, and pigs raised. **Minerals.**—Gold, copper, silver, iron and salt profitably mined; asphaltum and coal also produced. Petroleum, tin, lead, sulphur, and kaolin exist; pearls found along coast. **Commerce.**—Imports, cotton textiles, flour, rice, and hardware. Exports, coffee, cacao, balata gum and rubber, hides, cattle, gold.

FOREIGN POSSESSIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA

GUIANA

A region extending from Orinoco to Amazon River. Politically divided among Venezuela, Brazil, Great Britain, Netherlands, and France. Coasts of Colonial Guiana low and swampy. Interior undulating plains, dense forests of valuable timber, and low mountains; intersected by numerous rivers—Essequibo, longest. Mt. Roraima, 8,600 feet, highest elevation.

FRENCH GUIANA (CAYENNE).—Area, about 30,500 sq. m. **Products,** rice, maize, manioc, sugar cane, tafia, cacao, coffee, spices, etc. Gold mining principal industry. **Population,** 49,231. Cayenne, capital and chief seaport; population, 13,619. Colony under Governor assisted by a Council-General and Municipal Councils; represented in France by one Deputy.

BRITISH GUIANA.—Area, 90,277 sq. m. **Chief product,** sugar. Country rich in gold. **Population,** 297,691. Georgetown, capital; population, 53,442. Governor (appointed by Crown), assisted by an Executive Council and a legislative body.

SURINAM or DUTCH GUIANA.—Area, 46,060 sq. m. **Chief products,** sugar and cacao. Other products: Bananas, coffee, rice, maize, rum, molasses. **Population,** 113,181. Paramaribo, capital; population, 50,560. **Government** administered by Governor, assisted by a Council.

Falkland Islands.—About 300 miles east of Straits of Magellan. Discovered 1592. Belonged successively to France and Spain; became a British possession 1833. **Area,** 6,500 sq. m.; East Falkland, 3,000; West Falkland, 2,300; about 100 smaller islands, 1,200. Islands treeless, but well covered with grass. Highest elevation Mount Adam, 2,315 feet. **Climate,** healthful. Sheep farming leading industry. Exports Wool, hides, skins, tallow, whale oil, etc.; imports, provisions, clothing, timber, etc. **Population,** 3,250. Chief town Stanley, population, about 800. **Government** administered by the Governor, assisted by an Executive and a Legislative Council.

Curacao.—Colony of six islands belonging to Netherlands. **Area,** 403 sq. m. **Chief products,** maize, pulse, cattle, etc. **Population,** 53,702. Seaport, Willemstad, population, 12,500. Ruled by Governor and Council appointed by Sovereign.

EUROPE

Geographical Facts

Position and Area.—Europe is geographically merely a peninsula of Acia. It is bounded by the Arctic Ocean, the open Atlantic and the Mediterranean, and separated from Africa and Asia only by narrow straits. Development of coastline 19,820 m., or one mile of coast to every 182 sq. m. Extent from the North C. to C. Matapan 2,400 m., from C. St. Vincent to the Kara Strait 3,455 m. If Asiatic boundary be taken to be a line following Ural Mountains, Ural River, Caspian Sea, and Valley of Manych, area is about 3,750,000 sq. m. With addition of Iceland, Novaya Zemlya and Spitsbergen is 3,860,000 sq. m.

Population.—449,000,000. Including wastes of Russia and Scandinavia, average for Continent about 112 inhabitants to sq. m.

Physical Features. — The Alps (Mt. Blanc 15,700 ft.) form the backbone of the most vital part of the continent, and constitute a well-marked physical boundary between North and South. They send branches into Italy and the Balkan Peninsula, and reappear eastward in the Carpathians (Tatra 8,740 ft.). On their outer side they are encircled by the Cevennes, the Jura, and other ranges, the land thus enclosed constituting a tableland. Isolated mountain-ranges are those of Scandinavia, of the Iberian Peninsula (Pyrenees 11,170 ft.) and the Ural. The "great Lowland" of Europe stretches from the Pyrenees to the Ural, and from the Arctic to the Black Sea. It covers over two million sq. m. Minor plains are those of Hungary, of Roumania, and of the Po.

Hydrography.—Rivers are numerous, and give ready access to the heart of the continent. The only continental basin is that of the Caspian Sea, fed by the Volga (drainage area 563,630 sq. m.). Other large rivers are: Danube (315,416 sq. m.), Dnieper (203,480 sq. m.), Don (166,120 sq. m.) Dwina (141,080 sq. m.), Pechora (127,260 sq. m.), and Rhine (86,640 sq. m.). Ladoga (7,000 sq. m.) is the largest lake.

Climate.—The greater part of Europe lies within the temperate zone, and owing to the beneficent influence of the Gulf Stream the extremes of heat and cold are moderated, and the rainfall is sufficient. Under the Arctic circle, on the coast of Norway, the mean temperature is the same as at Quebec.

Political and Social Facts

History.—European history goes back to at least 3d millennium B. C. Grecian civilization dominant from 8th century B. C. on; Roman Republic founded 6th century. Zenith of Roman power 96-180 A. D. Empire embraced Italy, Spain, Gaul, Britain, Balkan Peninsula, Greece, etc. Empire divided into Eastern and Western 395. Barbarians pillaged Rome 5th century. Empire of Charlemagne, 8th century, extended from Elbe to Ebro, North Sea to Adriatic; from it were formed France, Italy, Germany, 9th century. Normans (Northmen) established in France 10th century, conquered England, 1066. Turks masters of Byzantine Empire 15th century. Union of Christian power in Spain 1479; climax 16th century. Reformation beginning with Wyclif (England 1380) and Huss (Bohemia 1412) spread in Germany, Switzerland, France, Hungary, Bohemia, Scandinavia, Netherlands, Scotland, and England 16th century. Napoleon conquered Italy, Austria, Prussia, Spain, Holland, and smaller States 1796-1807; Russia, England, Sweden, Prussia, Austria, united to crush Napoleon 1813-14; balance of power restored 1815.

World War, 1914-19. Brought on by German desire for conquest. Resulted in total defeat of Central Powers, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey. The Austro-Hungarian Empire was dismembered, Poland was restored, Serbia was included in a new kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, and new nations like Czecho-Slovakia, Latvia, etc., were brought into existence. Many countries which formerly were monarchies have become republics, notably Russia, Germany, Austria and Hungary.

Races.—1. European Aryans, 4,38957,000, including 134,073,000 Teutons, 116,056,000 Greco-Latins, 131,221,000 Slavs. 2. Asiatic Aryans (Gypsies, etc.) 654,000. 3. Semites (Jews, etc.) 8,965,000. 4. Mongolians (Turks and Tartars, Magyars, Finns, etc.) 23,264,000.

Religion.—More than 95 per cent of inhabitants of Europe Christian. In the south one-half the Christians Roman Catholics; remainder about equally divided between Protestants and adherents of Greek Church. Mohammedanism religion of Turks and some other inhabitants of the east. Jews scattered over entire Continent.

Natural Resources

Agriculture, etc.—Continent adapted to all food plants of temperate zone. Chief cereals cultivated from prehistoric times, wheat, barley, millet having been found beside lake dwellings in Switzerland of Stone Age. Russia and France principal wheat-growing countries; hardier grains—rye, barley, oats—grown in most sections. Flax and hemp widely cultivated. Many plants introduced from other countries now domesticated; potato and tobacco—from America—widely grown; maize a valuable crop in Austria, Italy, Roumania. From Asia came the vine, fig, apricot, orange, lemon, mulberry, rice, and cotton. Subtropical fruits grow luxuriantly in France and southern peninsulas. Area adapted to culture of vine comprises about three-sevenths of Europe.

Minerals.—Europe abundantly supplied with useful metals; deposits of precious metals limited. Coal mines in Great Britain, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, and France. Iron produced in great quantities in Germany, Great Britain, France, and Spain; highest grade obtained in Sweden. Lead mined in various localities, principally in Germany and Spain. Spain has richest copper mines in Europe. Tin obtained only in Cornwall and the Hartz Mountains; mercury confined to Spain—most important mines—Austria and Germany. Most extensive salt deposits found in Austria-Hungary. Gold found in paying quantities in the Ural and Hartz mountains; silver in Germany, Russia, Austria, and Sardinia. World's supply of potash from Germany.

Industry and Commerce

AUSTRIA

Area of Austria 32010 sq. mi.,

Climate.—Characterized by extremes of temperature and healthful

Physical Features — Austria contains two notable rivers—the Enns and Traun, tributaries of the Danube — and sections of many other rivers. In the west, near Lake Constance, there are tributaries of the Rhine; passing eastward there are portions of the Lech, Inn and Salzach valleys, all of which are steep, narrow Alpine valleys. In

AUSTRIA.—

History.—Austria acquired by Ottocar of Bohemia, 1254; by Rudolph of Hapsburg, Emperor of Germany, 1278; declared an archduchy, 1453. Acquired Netherlands, 1477; Spain, 1496. Emperor Charles V reigned over Germany, Austria, Bohemia, Hungary, Spain, Netherlands, 1519-1556. Thirty Years' War—1618-1648—resulted in the acknowledged independence of Switzerland and Holland, cession of Alsace to France, autonomy of

AUSTRIA.—

Commerce.—Imports, raw cotton, coal and coke, wool, machinery, silk. Exports, timber sugar, poultry and eggs, live stock. Almost half of trade with Germany.

Agriculture, etc. —Leading crops: Wheat, oats, rye, barley. Barley and wine chief agricultural exports. Forests administered under State by trained officials.

Live stock consists of horses, cattle, sheep, swine, goats.

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
the southeast there are the narrow Alpine valleys of the Drave, Mur and Raab (Gyor) which widen out as they approach the eastern frontier. The lower Inn and lower Morava (March) are boundary rivers. The only lowland of any extent is the Viena basin, the northeastern corner of lower Austria. The Neusiedler Sea, a shallow lake, is now almost entirely Austrian. **Population.** — 1920, 6,131,445. **Cities.**—Vienna, capital, seat of civil and military government, population, 1,850,000. Linz, chief town in Upper Austria on the Danube, 68,000.	German States. Seven Years War, 1756-63. Emperor Francis of Germany assumed title of Emperor of Austria, 1804; joined allies against Napoleon, 1813. Austria head of German Confederation, 1815; retired, 1866. Austro - Hungarian Monarchy formed, 1867. Entered Triple Alliance with Germany and Italy 1883. As an ally of Germany took a leading part in the European War. 1914. Became republic in 1920.	**Manufactures, etc.**—Textiles, exported for Balkan trade, glassware, pottery, musical instruments, sugar refining, brewing, iron and steel most important. **Production,** 1920: lignite, 2,387,996 tons; anthracite, 133,173 tons; iron ore, 435,000 tons; pig iron, 100,000 tons.
HUNGARY.— **Population.** — 1920, 7,840,832. **Area.**—35,654 sq. miles. **Climate.**—Generally temperate and healthful. These normal conditions are subject to considerable variations in accordance with the set of the winds over Europe. **Physical Features.** — Three-fourths of surface level. Principal river, Danube flows almost north and South across Hungary. Largest lake, Balaton. **Cities.** — Budapest, capital — adjoining towns Pest and Buda, incorporated 1873 under above title; Buda, seat of administration; Pest, commercial district; population, 1,184,616. Szegedin, in grain district, 109,896. Debreczen, 103,228. **Liechtenstein.**—Principality lying between Province of Tyrol and Rhine; practically part of Austrian Empire, though not incorporated by treaty. **Area,** 65 sq. mil. **Population,** 9,854—agricultural and nearly all Catholics. Corn, wine, flax, fruit, timber, chief products.	**HUNGARY—** **Government.**—In 1918 a revolution broke out, the King abdicated and a republic was established. The republic was short lived, and after some troubled months a new parliament in 1920 set up. **Education.**—Elementary education free and compulsory. **Religion.**—All legally recognized religious equal. In 1900, 52 per cent of population Roman Catholic, 15 per cent Greek Oriental, 19 per cent Protestant; 9.64 per cent Greek Catholic. Capital, Vaduz. Inhabitants pay no taxes, and not liable to military service.	**HUNGARY—** **Agriculture, etc.** — Chief industry, together with forestry. Leading crops: Wheat, oats, rye, corn, potatoes, tobacco, sugar beets. Area under vineyards, 618,090 acres; wine product, 28,776,000 gallons. Forests under State administration. **Live Stock, etc.**—Horses, asses and mules, cattle, sheep, swine, goats. Silk culture: In 1910 cocoons produced equaled 1,877 metric tons. Bee culture: Product, 4,108 metric tons; honey, 245 tons wax. **Manufacturers** include woodenware, clothing, metals, machinery, textiles, crockery, glass, chemicals, beer, alcohol, beet sugar, tobacco (State monopoly). **Minerals.** — Mineral products: coal, iron ore, salt works.
BELGIUM **Area and Physical Features.**—Area, 11,373 sq. m. Surface generally level; eastern division includes wooded region of Ardennes. **Climate.** — Temperate and healthful. **Population.**—7,684,212; per sq. m., 670. Official language French; Flemish language used largely. **Cities.**—Brussels, capital; population, 684,870. Antwerp, chief seaport; 333,882. Liege, manufactures machinery, hardware, firearms, etc.; 165,117. Ghent, 165,910. **Colonial Possessions.**—Belgian Congo. (For details, see under Africa).	**BELGIUM.—** **History.** — Kingdom at one time formed part of Roman and Frankish domains; passed to Austria as Austrian Netherlands 1713; conquered and annexed by France 1794; united with Netherlands as kingdom 1815; established as separate kingdom 1830; Limburg and Luxemburg divided between Belgium and Netherlands 1839. Took prominent part in the European War, 1914, on side of Russia, France and England. **Government.**—A constitutional hereditary monarchy. Executive powers vested in King. Legislative in King. Senate, and Chamber of Representatives. **Education, etc.**—Primary education free. Universities at Brussels, Ghent, Liege, and Louvain, and various technical schools. Roman Catholic religion prevails. Complete religious toleration exists.	**BELGIUM.—** **Agriculture, etc.**—Chief products: Oats, wheat, rye, potatoes, beets. Forests cover 17 per cent of area. Live stock consists of horses, cattle, and hogs. **Manufactures, etc.**—Textile industries, iron and glass manufactures lead. Firearms, machinery, etc., largely made. Beet sugar output, 239,370 tons refined sugar. Ghent center of textile, Liege of iron industry. **Minerals.**—Coal, iron ore, zinc. **Commerce.**—Chief imports: Cereals, raw textiles, rubber, drugs, timber. Principal exports: Yarns, linen and wool, iron and steel products, coal, coke, textiles, glass.
BULGARIA **Physical Features.** — The physical aspects of eastern Roumelia are varied, the surface in the west being broken up by the offshoots of the Albanian ranges, and in the north and northeast by the Balkans and their spurs. The north of Bulgaria is a fertile plain and hilly country; the south is wooded and mountainous. A fine waterway on	**BULGARIA.—** **History.**—Colonized by Bulgarians, a Slavonic tribe, 6th century; during 9th-10th century, and again in 12th, their rule extended over nearly all of Balkan Peninsula; annexed to Ottoman Empire, 1396. By Treaty of Berlin, 1878, constituted an autonomous principality under suzerainty of Turkey; Eastern Roumelia, now South Bulgaria,	**BULGARIA.—** **Agriculture** occupation of five-sevenths of population; soil generally fertile; wheat principal crop; wine, tobacco, silk, also produced; roses largely cultivated on southern slopes of Balkans; attar of roses largely manufactured. **Live Stock,** sheep, goats, cattle, pigs, horses. **Manufactures,** textiles, cigars,

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
the northern boundary affords an outlet to the Black Sea. **Area.**—40,656 sq. m. **Population.**—4,861,439. **Climate.**—Characterized by wide range of temperature and abrupt changes. **Cities.**—Capital, Sofia; population, 1920, 154,431. Philippopolis, Roumelia; population, 63,418. Rustchuk, fortified town on Danube; has arsenal, port, and royal palace; population 41,574.	incorporated with State, 185.8 Independence declared, 1908. **Government** vested in King, Council of Ministers, and a Sobranje, or National Assembly. **Education.**—Free, nominally obligatory. National church, Orthodox Greek; adherents, 3,345,991; Protestants, 5,402; Catholics, 29,442.	cigarettes. Domestic products include carpets, trimmings, ribbons, and hosiery. **Commerce** largely with Austria, Turkey, and Germany. Principal item, wheat; other exports include live stock, woolens, attar of roses, and skins. Imports, chiefly coal, iron, building timber, and machinery. **Minerals** belong to State; iron and coal exist in large quantities also gold, silver, manganese, copper and salt.
DENMARK **Area, etc.**—Area, 16,609 sq. m. Surface low, undulating plains diversified by heaths, marshes, and lakes; highest altitude 560 feet. **Population.**—3,267,831; density per sq. m., 178. **Cities.**—Copenhagen, capital, commercial center; population, 561,344. Aarhus, 74,256; Odense, 49,469. **Greenland.**—Iceland declared independent recently, and Danish West Indies sold to United States. **ICELAND.**—Settled by Norsemen about 870. United with Norway 1262. Passed to Denmark 1380. **Area,** 39,756 sq. m. Surface generally mountainous; about one-fourteenth meadow land. Many active volcanoes Hekla most famous. Subject to earthquakes. Hot springs throughout island. **Climate,** moist, tempered by Gulf Stream. **Population,** 94,690. Chife products: Sheep, cattle, ponies, and fish. Capital, Reykjavik; population, 6,682.	**DENMARK.**— **History.** — Viking age — 700-1050—included reign of Canute the Great, King of Denmark, Norway, and England 1029-1035. Denmark mistress of the Baltic 1157-1227; one kingdom with Norway and Sweden 1397-1412. Lost Lauenburg and Schleswig-Holstein 1864, part of which was regained in 1921. **Government, etc.** — Constitutional Monarchy. Executive vested in King and Council. Legislative in King and Riksdag or Diet conjointly. **Education, etc.** — Education widely diffused. Elementary instruction free and compulsory. Established church Lutheran.	**DENMARK.**— **Agriculture.**—Produces: Potatoes, oats, barley, rye. Raises more live stock in proportion to its size than any other European country. Dairy interests enormous and constantly increasing. Leading export, butter. **Manufactures** include spirits, beet sugar, bricks, pottery, machinery, tobacco, and gloves. **Commerce.**—Imports, textiles, metals and hardware, cereals. Exports, provisions, animals.
FRANCE **Physical Features.**—Surface of northwestern portion consists of plains and lowlands; southeastern of elevated plateaus and mountains. Principal mountain ranges, Alps—Mont Blanc, 15,780 feet—Jura, Vosges, Cevennes, Auvergne, and Pyrenees; rivers, Seine, Loire, Garonne, and Rhone. Length of coast line, 1,500 m. **Area.**—212,659 sq. m.; divided into 89 departments. Extreme length, 660 m.; breadth, 540. **Population.**—39,209,766, per sq. m., 190. **Climate.** — Temperate and healthful. Rainfall heaviest along Atlantic and in mountains. **Cities.**—Paris, capital; population 1911, 2,906,274; largest city in France, second in Europe. Lyons 1906, 561,592; seat of manufactures, notably silk. Marseilles, 586,341; principal port of France and the Mediterranean. Bordeaux, 267,409; center of wine export trade. **ANDORRA.**—A republic in the Pyrenees, under suzerainty of France and the Spanish Bishop of Urgel. **Area,** 175 sq. m. **Population,** 5,231. Inhabitants, principally shepherds, speak the Catalan language. **Religion,** Roman Catholic. **Governed** by a council of 24 members, and a syndic. **MONACO.**—Independent principality inclosed by Department of Alpes-Maritimes, Southern France. **Area,** 8 sq. m.; smallest sovereign State of Europe. **Population,**	**FRANCE** **History.** — Early inhabitants Iberians and Celts. Territory included in ancient Gallia or Gaul; in part made province of Roman Empire 118 B. C.; conquest completed by Julius Cæsar 58-50. Franks—allied German tribes—established monarchy under Clovis 5th century A. D.; became dominant people, giving name to country. Formed part of Charlemagne's empire 768-814. Separate monarchy established, nucleus of modern France 9th century. Settlement of Normans (Northmen) 10th century. Crusades 12th century. Huguenot wars 1562-98; massacre St. Bartholomew 1572. Power greatly extended 17th century. Seven years' war 1754-63; Canada lost 1759. Revolution began 1789. Republic established 1792. Napoleonic wars 1796-1815. Empire proclaimed under Napoleon 1804; overthrown and Bourbons re-established 1815. Second republic 1848; second empire 1852. Engaged in Crimean war 1852. Franco-Prussian war and overthrow of second empire 1870-71. With Russia and England took leading part in the European War, 1914 against Germany and Austria-Hungary. **Government.** — Republican. Executive authority vested in President — term, 7 years — and Ministry. Legislative, in Senate and Chamber of Deputies. **Education, etc.**—Primary in-	**FRANCE.**— **Agriculture,** the leading industry. Chief products: Wheat, oats, rye, barley, potatoes. Value of chestnuts, walnuts, olives, apples, plums, and mulberry leaves, $46,500,000. Silk culture encouraged by Government. Live stock: Horses, cattle, sheep, swine, goats. Area under forests, 23,043,107 acres. **Manufactures.**—Leading manufactures: Clothing, silk, wool, and cotton textiles, wine, lace-making, fine instruments. **Minerals.**—Chief products: Coal and lignite, iron ore, zinc, antimony, salt. **Commerce.**—Imports: Raw silks and cotton, wool, cereals, coal and coke. Exports: Textiles, raw silk, wool and yarn, wine,

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
22,956. **Towns:** Monaco, 2,247; Monte Carlo, 9,627; Condamine, 11,082. **Religion,** Roman Catholic; other churches excluded. **Government,** constitutional monarchy. **Colonies and Dependencies.**—France has the following possessions, for details of which see under the respective continents. **In Asia:** India, Annam, Cambodia, Cochin-China, Tonking, Laos. **In Africa:** Algeria, Sahara, Tunis, Sénégal, Upper Sénégal and Niger, Guinea, Ivory Coast, Dahomey, Mauritania, Cameroon, Morocco, part of Togo-land.	struction free since 1881, obligatory 1882. All forms of religion tolerated. Large majority of inhabitants Roman Catholic. By act of 1905 churches ceased to be recognized by state, and state allowances were discontinued.	
	Congo, Réunion, Madagascar, Mayotte, Somali Coast. **In America:** St. Pierre and Miquelon, Guadeloupe, Martinique, Guiana. **In Oceania,** New Caledonia, Tahiti, etc.	

GERMANY

Area.—183,381 sq. m.

Population.—60,900,197. Density per sq. m., 330.6.

Physical Features.—Surface in north largely a lowland plain; central and southern portions table-lands diversified by hills and mountains. Highest elevation, Zugspitze, in South Bavaria 9,738 feet; Schneekoppe, 5,274 feet, highest point north of the Danube. Principal rivers, Rhine, Elbe, Oder, and Vistula.

Climate.—Generally temperate and healthful; winters of upland districts often severe; lower river valleys delightful throughout the seasons. Mean annual temperature, 48 deg. Rainfall fairly uniform; average for year, 27 inches; heaviest in Harz Mountains.

FEDERAL STATES AND CHIEF TOWNS.—

Prussia, republic: 114,379 sq. m., population, 37,726,018. **Towns:** Berlin, *3,803,770; Breslau, 528,260; Cologne, 633,904; Essen, 439,257; Frankfort on Main, 433,002; Hanover, 392,805; Konigsberg, 219,852; Dusseldorf, 407,338; Dortmund, 295-026.

Bavaria, republic: 29,292 sq. m., population, 7,140,333. Towns: Munich, 630,711; Nurenberg, 347,291; Augsburg, 154,555; Wurzburg, 86,-571.

Saxony, republic: 5,789 sq. m., **Population,** 4,663,298; Towns: Leipzig, 604,397; Dresden, 587,757; Chemnitz, 304,961.

Wurtemburg, republic: 7,530 sq. m., population 2,518,773. Towns Stuttgart, 309,197; Ulm, 57,491.

Baden, republic: 5,823 sq. m., population, 2,208,503. Towns: Mannheim, 229,576; Carlsruhe, capital, 135,952; Freiburg, 87,946.

Hesse, republic: 2,966 sq. m. population, 1,290,988. Towns: Mainz, (Mayence), 107,930; Darmstadt, capital, 87,409.

Mecklenburg-Schwerin, republic; 5,083 sq. m., population 658,-943. Towns: Rostock, 60,760; Schwerin, capital, 41,638.

Mecklenburg-Strelitz, republic: 1,208 sq. m., population, 103,251. Capital, New Strelitz, 11,344.

Oldenburg, republic: 2,480 sq. m., population 517,765. Capital. Oldenburg, 28,548.

GERMANY.

History.—Germans or Teutons, an Aryan race, first mentioned 4th century B. C. German-Roman empire founded by Charlemagne 800; dynasty extinguished 911; reign of Otto (936-977) most successful of Middle Ages; prosperous succession of Hohenstaufen dynasty 1138-1268. Restriction of imperial power by electors 1273-1806; overthrow of empire, and confederation of Rhine under Napoleon I, 1806; dissolved 1813. Alliance of Austria and German States 1815; North German Confederation 1866; Franco-Prussian War 1870-1871—Prussia leading factor joined by Southern Germany. William I, King of Prussia, elected German Emperor in Reichstag on initiative of all reigning German princes 1871, Started World War of 1914-18 as ally of Austria-Hungary and was finally crushed by armies of France, Great Britain and U. S.

Government, etc. — Germany, republic, dates as a republic from the abdication of the emperor on Nov. 9th, 1918.

The present constitution dates from 1919. The president is elected by all the people and holds office for seven years. The legislature of Germany and of each of the constituent republics is elected on the proportional system by the universal, equal direct and secret votes of all voters of both sexes. Provision is made for the referendum. All Germans are equal before the law, and distinctions of birth, class or creed have been abolished. Freedom of speech and of the press and the right of meeting have been incorporated in the constitution. Declarations of war and peace must be by legal enactment.

Education, etc. — Education highly advanced throughout the Empire. Primary education free and compulsory; school age 6 - 14. Secondary schools, 1,529, besides 181 normal, 11 polytechnic institutes, and many splendid secondary schools for vocational training. For higher education, 21 universities. Only 0.04 per cent of the recruits are unable to read (most illiterates in the Polish provinces).

Religion.—All religions accorded complete equality. Relation between Church and State varies in different parts of country. In 1905 Protestants numbered 37,646,852; Roman Catholics, 22,109,644; other Christians, 259,717; Jews, 607,862.

GERMANY.—

Agriculture, etc.—Cereals largely raised; rye, leading crop; vine, flax, and beet-root extensively cultivated. Principal crops rye, hay, oats, wheat, barley, potatoes, beet-root grown for manufacture of sugar and also as food for cattle. Fruits and vegetables grown extensively. Area under vineyards, 275,077 acres. Valleys of Rhine, Moselle, Neckar, and Main long celebrated for their wines.

Live Stock.—Stock raising a prominent industry in many districts. Cattle, horses, and sheep reared in large numbers. Saxony and Silesia long renowned for excellence of their wools.

Fisheries.—Sea fisheries comparatively unimportant; fisheries in inland waters an important source of revenue in many districts—salmon, trout, carp, and pike principal fish taken.

Manufactures varied and of vast proportions. Has exceeded all European nations in rapidity of recent industrial development. Over one-third of productive population engaged in industrial pursuits. Two greatest industrial districts: Region of lower Rhine valley, and Saxony. In iron and steel industry Germany surpassed only by United States. In textiles Saxony and Silesia lead. Large paper mills operate in the Rhine Province. Glass and porcelain centralized in Bavaria, lace in Saxony, beer largely brewed in Bavaria. Production of beet-root sugar important.

Forests occupy 34,569,800 acres, or about 25 per cent of total area of Empire. Forestry an important industry; scientifically conducted under State supervision; furnishes an important revenue in many districts.

Minerals. — Among European countries Germany one of the richest in mineral wealth. Westphalia, Rhenish Prussia, and Silesia leading producers; coal and iron principal minerals worked; country ranks second in output of zinc; yields about one-fourth the world's annual production. Extensive deposits of excellent rock salt in Prussia and several other states. Germany controls world output of potash salts.

Commerce.—One of the foremost commercial countries. Chief imports: Raw textiles, yarn, cereals, live stock, hides, coffee, petroleum. Exports: Metals, metal wares, machinery, textiles, coal, sugar, leather, dyes, clothing.

*Over one million of this is not included in Berlin proper.

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts	Geographical Facts	Geographical Facts
Brunswick, republic: 1,418 sq. m., population 485,651. Capital, Brunswick, 480,599. **Anhalt,** republic: 886 sq. m., population 331,258. Capital, Dessau, 55,134. **Waldeck,** republic: 433 sq. m., population 66,432. Capital, Arolser, 2,734. **Schaumburg - Lippe,** republic: 131 sq. m., population 46,357. Capital, Bückeburg, 5,625. **Lippe,** republic, 470 sq. m., population 145,510. Capital, Detmold, 11,971. **Thuringian States.—Saxe Weimar,** republic: 1,388 sq. m., population, 387,892. Capital, Weimar, 31,120. **Saxe-Meiningen,** duchy: 953 sq. m., population 68,859. Capital, Meiningen, 14,518. **Saxe-Altenburg,** republic: 511 sq. m., population 206,500. Capital, Altenburg, 8,811. **Saxe-Coburg-Gotha,** duchy: 756 sq. m., population, 242,-892. Capitals, Coburg, 22,489; Gotha, 34,693. **Schwarzburg-Sondershausen,** republic: 233 sq. m., population 85,177. Capital, Sondershausen, 7,054. **Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt,** republic: 363 sq. m., population 96,830. Capital, Rudolstadt, 11,907. **Reuss, Elder line,** republic: 122 sq. m., population 70,590. Capital, Greiz, 23,111. **Reuss, Junior line,** republic: 319 sq. m., population 141,570. Capital, Gera 46,910. **Old Hanse Towns.—Hamburg:** 160 sq. m., population 1,050,359, of whom 985,779 are in the city. **Bremen:** 99 sq. m.; population 311,266 of whom 261,492 are in the city of Bremen. **Lubeck:** 115 sq. m., population, 120,568 of whom 107,874 are in the city.	**GRAND DUCHY OF LUXEMBURG.**—Grand duchy under King of Netherlands 1815. Included from 1815 to 1866 in German Confederation. Declared neutral territory 1867. **Area,** 999 sq. m.; population, 263,824, Catholics predominant. Chief resources, agricultural and iron ore. **Manufactures** of leather and gloves, also textiles. **Government** in hands of Grand Duke.

BRITISH EMPIRE

History.—The United Kingdom comprises England, Wales, Scotland, Scotland, and adjacent islands and the dependencies of Isle of Man, and Channel Islands. Wales, Scotland and Ireland formerly distinct countries. Conquest of Ireland commenced 1170, ended 1691; Wales conquered 1282, formally annexed 1536; England and Scotland united 1603; Parliaments united 1707; Parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland united 1801; Isle of Man, alternately held by Scotland and England, purchased for British Crown 1765, all privileges ceded 1829; Channel Islands, geographically a part of France, dependencies of British Crown since Norman Conquest. United Kingdom of Great Britain. Ireland, colonies, and foreign possessions, together form the British Empire. Total area of the Empire, 11,448,000 sq. m., or over one-fifth of all the land on the globe; population, about 420,-000,000, or one-fourth the total inhabitants of the world. Extension and consolidation of British Empire without a parallel in history.

Government, etc.—A constitutional monarchy. Executive power vested nominally in the Crown, practically in a committee of ministers, called the Cabinet—Premier usually the first Lord of the Treasury—dependent on the support of a majority in the House of Commons. Supreme legislative power vested in Parliament, which consists of two houses, Lords and Commons; the former, numbering 632, comprises Peers sitting by hereditary right, other Peers created by the Sovereign, 16 representative Peers for Scotland, 2 archbishops and certain bishops. House of Commons comprises representatives from the counties, cities, and burghs, chosen by registered electors; number of members 615, of whom 540 represent English, 75 Scotch; and 103 Irish constituencies. Duration of Parliament, unless previously dissolved, 5 years.

Education—Religion.—Elementary education compulsory in Great Britain and Ireland; was made free in Scotland, 1889; in England and Wales, 1891. Higher education provided for by public and private schools, colleges, and universities. Entire freedom exists for all forms of worship. Established religion of England, Protestant Episcopal; of Scotland, Presbyterian. Ireland has no established church.

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
GREAT BRITAIN **ENGLAND AND WALES.—** **Area** of England, 50,890 sq. m., greatest length, 363 m.; greatest breadth, 320 m.; Wales, 7,434 sq. m. **Population.**—Total population, 37,885,242; average per square mile 653. **Physical Features.**—Surface of England diversified by mountains, hills, and valleys; watered by numerous rivers and streams; generally level or undulating in east, south, and center; hilly in west. Pennine chain greatest relief feature; Cumbrian Mountains, Sca Fell Pike, 3,210 feet. Principal rivers, Thames, Humber, and Severn. Surface of Wales generally mountainous; Vale of Glamorgan only considerable level district; Snowdon, 3,590 feet, highest point. Dee, Severn, and Wye rise in Wales. **Climate.** — Temperate and healthful; general moisture and frequent rain due to insular position.	**ENGLAND AND WALES—** **History.**—Earliest historic race, Celts; monuments of primeval inhabitants are found, notably at Stonehenge and Avebury. Leading events in history include: Invasions of Julius Cæsar 54 and 55 B. C.; subjugation of the Celtic Britons by the Romans 43 A. D. and succeeding years; abandonment by Romans 410; invasions by the Jutes, Angles, and Saxons, beginning 449 (?); Christianity introduced 597; rule of Canute the Dane 1016-42; Norman conquest under William I, 1066; commencement of Plantagenet line under Henry II, 1154; Wales subdued by Edward I, 1276-84, united to England 1536; granting of Magna Charta 1215; first Parliament assembled 1265. Reformation under Henry VIII, 1534; succession of Stuart line, and union of the two crowns under James I of Scotland 1603; accession of William and Mary 1689; union	**ENGLAND AND WALES.—** **Agriculture.**—Principal grains cultivated, wheat, oats, barley, and rye. Wheat grown chiefly in eastern counties; product less than one-fourth the quantity required for home consumption. Hemp and flax important products. Hops grown extensively, especially in Surrey and Kent. Fruit cultivated. **Live Stock.**—Domestic animals among the finest in the world. Great attention given to breeding fine horses, cattle, and sheep. **Fisheries** employ over 39,051 men. Catch, exclusive of salmon, largely taken on east coast of England. **Manufactures** of textiles, iron and steel, and machinery, rank first among important industries. Ship-building, manufactures of chemicals and leather next in importance; manufacture of earthenware, glass, paper, watches and clocks, etc.

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
Mean average temperature London, 50.55 deg.; summer, 63.8 deg.; winter, 37.3 deg. **Cities.**—London, capital of England and seat of government of British Empire; largest and most important city of the world, and leading business and financial center. Population, 4,483,249; Greater London, 7,476,176; total area, 690 sq. m.; London proper, "The City," area about one square mile. Liverpool, second commercial port of England; terminus of numerous steamship lines; leading industries, shipbuilding and manufactures of rope, sugar, iron, etc. Population, 803,118. Manchester, chief manufacturing center of England; one of principal centers of cotton manufacture in the world. Population, 730,551. Birmingham, one of chief centers in world for hardware manufactures; population 919,438. Leeds, seat of woolen and cloth manufactures; population, 458,320. Sheffield, seat of cutlery trade, population, 490,724. **SCOTLAND. — Area.** — Area, 30,405 sq. m., including 186 islands —area, 3,700 sq. m. Extreme length, 288 m.; extreme breadth, 175 m.; least breadth, 32 m. Country divided into 33 civil counties. **Physical Features.**—Surface extremely mountainous. Country naturally divided into Highlands, embracing northern and western sections, and Lowlands, comprising southern and eastern districts. Mountains divided into three groups; Grampians, or Central Highlands, Northern Highlands, Southern Highlands. Chief rivers are Tweed, Forth, Tay, Dee, and Spey, flowing into North Sea, and Clyde, entering Atlantic Ocean. The Highlands abound in lakes celebrated for their beauty; Loch Lomond, the most famous, is the largest and finest in Great Britain; others noteworthy are Lochs Katrine, Awe, Leven, Ness, Shin, and Maree. Coast line remarkably broken by far-reaching estuaries and lochs; total length, 2,500 miles. Coasts fringed with numerous islands; principal groups, Orkneys, Shetlands, Hebrides—including Staffa, with its famous cavern. **Population.** — Scotland much less populous than England. Population, 4,882,288; males, 2,348,403; females, 2,533,885. Inhabitants, per square mile, 162. People of Highlands and Lowlands two distinct races. Language of Lowlands is prevalently English; that of Highlands is still largely Gaelic, gradually becoming less prevalent. **Climate.**—Slightly colder than that of England, especially in Highlands, where winter is more severe and rain most abundant. **Cities.**—Edinburgh capital, on the Firth of Forth. Population, 420,281. Glasgow, largest city and seaport, and first in wealth and commercial importance. Population, 1,034,069. Dundee, important seaport, with extensive coasting and foreign trade; principal center of jute manufactures in Great Britain.	of England and Scotland 1707; accession of Hanoverian dynasty, George I, 1714; loss of United States 1783; union with Ireland 1801; accession of Victoria and separation of Hanover 1837; war with Russia 1853-56; assumed control of Indian possessions 1858. **Government, etc.**—Geographically divided into 52 counties or shires; government represented in each by Lord Lieutenant and High Sheriff, appointed by the Crown; for purposes of a local government, 62 administrative counties, each governed by a County Council. **Education.**—Of common schools, over half are voluntary schools under religious control. Elementary education compulsory; school age 5-14. For higher education England has ten universities. **Religion.**—Established Church of England, Protestant Episcopal; all other forms tolerated. Other prominent religious bodies; Roman Catholic, Methodists, Baptists, Congregationalists, Presbyterians and Salvation Army. **SCOTLAND.**— **History.**—The name Scotland, "Land of the Scots" became general about 950; Albyn, the name given by native Picts and Scots; Roman name, Caledonia. At the time of the Roman invasion the country was divided among Celtic tribes. Invasions of Roman Britain by Picts and Scots, fourth and fifth centuries. Kingdom founded by Dalriad Scots and a settlement of Angles in the southeast in sixth century. Conversion of Picts begun by Columba, who founded monastery of Iona about 565. Kingdom of Albania, or Scotia, founded in ninth century by union of Picts and Scots. Raids and settlements in Orkneys and Shetlands by Norsemen, eighth to eleventh centuries. Country invaded by Edward I of England, 1296. Independence of Scotland secured under Robert Bruce by victory of Bannockburn, 1314; reign of Mary, Queen of Scots, 1542-67; reformation, 1560. Accession of James VI of Scotland to throne of England as James I, 1603. Legislative union of two kingdoms of England and Scotland, 1707; Jacobite insurrections, 1715 and 1745-46. **Government, etc.**—Scotland forms one kingdom with England, but has a distinct code of law, and a Presbyterian Established Church. Largest administrative division civil county or shire; chief officials of each county, the Lord-Lieutenant—who is also High Sheriff—and the Sheriff-Principal, both appointed by the Crown. The Lord-Lieutenant represents the Crown for military purposes; important judicial and administrative authority rests with the Sheriff-Principal. **Education.**—Elementary education made free for compulsory standard, 1889; compulsory age, 5-14. Higher education provided for by 4 universities, comprising 5 colleges, and 2 detached colleges. **Religion.**—Established Church	**Minerals.**—Country contains vast stores of mineral wealth. Mining one of chief industries. Coal and iron lead; tin, copper, lead, and zinc also worked. Slate quarried extensively in Wales. Valuable clays, building stones, granites, and marbles produced in various localities. **Commerce.**—Foreign commerce extends to all parts of the globe; distinguishing features, imports of raw materials and exports of manufactured goods. Trade of England and Wales 91.5 per cent of entire trade of United Kingdom. **SCOTLAND.**— **Agriculture.**—Productive area limited; agricultural districts in flourishing condition. Principal grain crops, oats, barley, and wheat; staple crop, oats; excellent wheat grown in southern district. Potatoes and turnips cultivated largely. **Live Stock, etc.**—Chief industry of Highlands rearing of cattle; Clydesdale famous for its cart horses; Shetland Islands for ponies; Ayrshire for fine cattle. Sheep industry extensive; Scotland famous for two breeds: Cheviot, grown for wool; black-faced, for mutton. Deer more abundant than in England; deer forests cover 4,020 sq. m. **Fisheries** form one of the chief industries. Surrounding seas swarm with fish; herring, cod, and haddock taken in enormous quantities, chiefly on east coast. Rivers and lakes supply large numbers of salmon and trout. **Minerals.**—Mineral resources extensive; coal and iron lead in importance; extensive deposits exist in Lowlands. Lead and copper also mined; good building stone and granite quarried. **Manufactures.**—Scotland chiefly a manufacturing and commercial country. Manufacture of cotton, woolen, and linen textiles important and long established industries. Shipbuilding and manufacture of heavy iron goods, machinery, and locomotives, leading industries; more iron and steel ships built at Glasgow, on the Clyde, than at any other port in the Kingdom. Other manufactures are paper, glass, pottery, and chemicals. **Commerce** similar to that of England. Imports, chiefly raw materials and colonial produce. Exports: manufactured goods, agriculture products, coal, iron, and fish.

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
Population, 165,006. Aberdeen, a leading commercial center. Population, 163,084.	of Scotland, Presbyterian. United Free Church, formed from disruption 1843, joined 1900 with United Presbyterian Church.	
IRELAND.—Area.—32,605 sq. m.; mainland, 32,365 sq. m. Greatest length, 290 m.; greatest breadth, 175 m.; least, 90 m. Country divided into 4 provinces, subdivided into 32 counties. **Population.**—4,390,219; per sq. m., 136. **Physical Features.** — Surface generally level in the interior, rising toward the coast in isolated groups of hills or mountains; highest summit, Carrantuohill, in Magillicuddy Reeks, 3,414 feet. Central portion of Ireland crossed by a great limestone plain; large areas of plain are marsh and bogs, furnishing abundance of peat. Country well watered. Principal rivers: Shannon —length 224 miles—Blackwater, Bann, and Barrow. Lakes abound: Lough Neagh, 150 square miles in extent, largest in British Isles; Lakes of Killarney, celebrated for picturesque beauty. Coats on north and west bold and rocky, broken by deep inlets; on east flat and regular; south coast affords excellent harbors. **Climate.**—Milder than that of England, characterized by excessive moisture. Rainfall most abundant on western and southern coasts. Mean temperature of Dublin, January, 40.4 deg.; July, 59.9 deg.; year, 49.2 deg. **Cities.**—Dublin, the capital, population, 399,000. Belfast, leading commercial and manufacturing city in Ireland. Population, 393,000. Cork, third city, population, 76,632. Other important seaports and commercial centers are: Limerick, rich in historical associations. Population 38,403. Londonderry, an important port and manufacturing town. Population, 40,799.	**IRELAND.—** **History.**—Introduction of Christianity by St. Patrick 432; Danish invasion 1014, ended by victory, at Clontarf, of the Irish chieftain Brian Bore; conquests of country by Henry II, 1174; by Henry VII 1494; Poyning's Act, 1494, repealed 1782; revolt of Irish under Geraldines suppressed by Henry VIII, who took title of King of Ireland 1542; English and Scottish settlements made in Ulster by James I, 1609-12; adherence of Ireland to James II, 1689; Battle of the Boyne 1690; Irish Parliament declared independent 1782; unsuccessful rebellion, 1798; Act consummating union of Ireland and Great Britain became effective 1801; unsuccessful rebellion under Emmet 1803; Catholic Emancipation Act passed 1829; potato famine 1846-7, followed by great emigration to America; "Young Ireland" rebellion 1848: Fenian outbreaks, 1865-7; disestablishment of Irish Church 1871; Land League suppressed 1881; Home Rule Bill became a law in 1914, but not immediately operative. Independent Irish Parliament, called Dail Eireann, set up by Sinn Fein Party. After some hostilities, British Government offered to recognize Ireland as the Irish Free State, independent of the British Empire except in the right to make treaties and to declare war. Dail Eireann ratified this arrangement January 1922. General election confirmed treaty in spite of guerrilla warfare kept up by those who stood out for an Irish Republic. **Education.**—Elementary education controlled by Commissioners, of National Education; compulsory, subject to exceptions, since 1892. For higher education, three universities. **Religion.**—Three-fourths of inhabitants Roman Catholics. Protestant Episcopal Church disestablished by law 1869, is still an influential body. Other denominations; Presbyterians, Methodists, Independents, Baptists, Jews.	**IRELAND.—** **Agriculture,** the leading industry, engages 44 per cent of working population. Of total area, 72 per cent cultivable and pasture land. Potatoes raised in greater quantities, relatively, than in any other country; prosperity of Ireland depends largely upon this crop. Principal crops: Potatoes, oats, barley, wheat, turnips. **Live Stock.**—Most flourishing department of Irish agriculture, rearing of live stock; large numbers of fatted cattle shipped to English market. Cattle, sheep, and pigs constitute chief industrial wealth. **Fisheries.**—Coasts of Ireland swarm with all kinds of fish; catch, however, equals only about one-seventh of that of Scotland. Large numbers of salmon are taken annually. **Manufactures.**—Leading manufacturing industries, linen textiles, poplins, and lace; woolen and cotton goods are produced; other manufactures are glass and pottery. Linen industry, employing about 60,000 people, practically confined to Ulster. Second in importance to textiles is the production of whisky, beer, and porter. Largest whisky distilleries in the Kingdom at Dublin. **Minerals.**—Country rich in iron ore. Coal fields limited in extent, output small. Small deposits of copper, lead, and silver exist; greatest aggregate value, that of marbles, building stones, clay, and slate; other minerals, salt, alum, and barytes. **Commerce** consists largely of export of agricultural produce and import of coal. Of total trade of United Kingdom, 2.5 per cent falls to Ireland.

EUROPEAN POSSESSIONS OF GREAT BRITAIN

ISLE OF MAN.—Originally peopled by the Manx, a Celtic race; alternately possessed by Scotch and English; purchased for British Crown 1806. **Area,** 227 sq. m. **Climate,** mild. Herring, cod, and mackerel **fisheries** extensive. **Mineral** products, lead, zinc, salt; lead mines richest in Kingdom. **Population,** 60,238. Native Manx and English both taught in schools. Douglas, capital and largest town. **Religion,** Established Church of England. Island governed by Lieut.-Governor appointed by Crown; has its own laws; two supreme judges, deemsters.

CHANNEL ISLANDS, dependencies of British Crown since Norman Conquest. **Area,** 75 sq. m. **Climate,** mild and equable. **Agricultural and Pastoral.**—Potatoes, garden truck flourish; apple orchards extensive; famous for cattle, especially Alderney and Guernsey breeds. **Population,** 96,901. Native language old Norman patois; official language still French; English generally spoken. St. Helier, capital of Jersey—largest island—busy seaport and well-known watering place. Islands governed under ancient charters; Jersey separately under Lieut.-Governor; Guernsey and its dependencies, Alderney, Sark, etc., a Lieut.-Governor in common.

GIBRALTAR.—Town and fortified promontory of great strategic importance at entrance of Mediterranean; taken by English 1704. Area, 1.9 sq. m.; population, 24,460, including garrison of 5,340 men. Civil and military authority rests with Governor, who is also Commander-in-Chief.

EUROPEAN POSSESSIONS OF GREAT BRITAIN—Continued

MALTA.—Island dependency of Great Britain in Mediterranean, south of Sicily; important naval base and port of call. **Area,** 95 sq. m.; **population,** 224,859. Valetta, chief town and seaport.

OTHER POSSESSIONS OF GREAT BRITAIN.—(For details see under respective continents).

Asia (except India): Cyprus, Aden, Perim, Socotra, Ceylon, Straits Settlements, Fed. Malay States, Other Malay States, Borneo and Sarawak, Hong Kong and Ter., Wei-hai-wei. **India:** British, Feudatory States. **Australasia:** Australia, Papua, New Zealand, Fiji, Tonga, Solomon, and Gilbert Is. **Africa:** Togo, Kenya and Southwest Africa. Ascension, St. Helena, W. Africa, N. Nigeria, S. Nigeria and Prot., Gold Coast and Prot., Sierra Leone and Prot., Gambia and Prot., Mauritius and Deep., Seychelles, Somaliland, East Africa Prot., Uganda Prot., Zanzibar and Pemba, Nyasaland, Union of S. Africa, Rhodesia, Swaziland, Basutoland, Bechuanaland. **N. America:** Canada, Newfoundland and Labrador, British Honduras, British Guiana, Bermuda. **W. Indies:** Bahamas, Turks and Caicos Is., Jamaica, Cayman Is., Windward Islands, Leeward Islands, Trinidad and Tobago. **S. America:** Falkland Islands.

Geographical Facts

GREECE

Area, etc.—Area, 41,933 sq. m., including islands.

Population, 5,477,077.

Physical Features.—Modern Greece includes a mainland connected by the Isthmus of Corinth with the four-fingered peninsula of Morea (Peloponnesus), and a number of islands (Eubœa, the Sporades, Cyclades, and Ionian Islands). It is essentially a maritime, mountain-land, rising in the Pindos to a height of 8,240 feet. The only extensive plain is that of Thessaly, the only navigable river the Aspropotamos.

The Climate is delightful, and snow, in the plains, rare. Athens, mean temperature, 65 deg., Jan. 47 deg., July 80, rainfall 16 in.

Cities.—Athens, capital, contains ancient acropolis or citadel with ruins of Parthenon and Erechtheum; population, 300,701. Piræus port of Athens, chief seaport, population, 133,482; Patras, 52,133; Saloniki, 170,195.
17,894; Korfu, 17,918.

CRETE, ancient Candia, island in Mediterranean. **Area,** 3,365 sq. m. Surface mountainous. Products, olive oil, soap, wine, fruits, silk, etc.

ITALY

Area.—145,000 sq. m., including Sicily, 9,936; Sardinia, 9,306. Divided into 69 provinces.

Population.—40,000,000; per sq. m., 314. Italian is the mother tongue of all, with exception of 140,000 French in the Alps of Piedmont; 50,000 Albanians, 20,000 Greeks, and 7,000 Catalonians in the south.

Physical Features.—The Kingdom of Italy includes an extended peninsula in the center of the Mediterranean, encircled in the north by the Alps, and traversed along the whole of its length by the Apennines (Gran Sasso, 9,580 ft.), together with the islands of Sicily and Sardinia. The Southern Tyrol, Ticino, Istria, Corsica, and other districts mainly inhabited by Italians, are known to patriots as "Italia Irridenta." The great rivers are the Po (which drains a vast plain and the lakes at the south foot of the Alps), the Arno, and the Tiber. Mt. Vesuvius—only active volcano on mainland of Europe.

Climate.—Genial, being most extreme in the north, most equable along the Riviera and in the South. At Rome the mean temp. is 59 deg., and the rainfall 31 in.

Cities.—Rome, capital and ecclesiastical center; population, 650,000.

Political and Social Facts

GREECE.—

History.—Name derived from Graecus, an ancient king. Authentic history begins 776 B. C. Period of greatest power 5th century B. C. Became province of Roman Empire, 46 B. C.; of Byzantine Empire, 395 A. D. Conquered by Turks, 1456; incorporated with Turkish Empire, 16th century. Independence regained, 1821-29 declared a kingdom under protection of Great Britain, France, Russia, 1830. War with Turkey, 1897, resulted in Greece accepting international control in financial affairs and the payment of large indemnity to Turkey.

Government.—Executive power vested in King; legislative in single chamber, called Boulé, composed of 235 representatives.

Education, etc.—Elementary education compulsory; law not strictly enforced. State church Greek Orthodox; Patriarch of Constantinople nominal head; toleration granted all sects.

Greek is spoken by the bulk of the population; but Albanians (90,000) are met with in Attica, Zinzars (Roumanians) in the Pindos, Turks in Thessaly.

ITALY.—

History.—Invading Pelasgians from Greece and aborigines—Umbrians, Oscans, Etruscans—combined, formed Latin race. Rome founded 753 B. C.; peninsula consolidated under Roman rule 3d century B. C. Foundation of States of Church 756. Charlemagne crowned Emperor at Rome 800. Kingdom of Naples founded 1059. Struggle between popes and German emperors 11th—14th centuries. Period of foreign interference—Spanish-Austrian predominating—1494-1796. Cisalpine, Ligurian, Roman republics founded 1797; Napoleon crowned King of Italy 1805, abdicated 1814. Victor Emanuel proclaimed king 1861; temporal power of Papacy ended 1870. Fought successful war with Turkey in 1911, winning Tripoli in Africa. As member of Allies in World War, won Trentino and Istria from Austria.

Government, etc.—Limited monarchy. Executive vested in King and Council of Ministers. Legislative in King and parliament.

Education, etc.—Elementary education free; school age, 6-9. Universities, 21. Roman Catholic nominally State religion; freedom of worship granted all faiths. Roman Catholics, 97 per cent 100,000 Protestants, 40,000 Jews.

Industry and Commerce

GREECE.—

Agriculture, etc.—Country mainly agricultural; soil unusually fertile. Industry backward, owing to primitive methods. Cereals grown are wheat, barley, rye, corn; currants the most favored and best cultivated. Of other products, tobacco, wine olive, orange, lemon, and fig-growing important. Silk culture followed in Messenia and Thessaly. Live stock: Sheep, cattle, goats. Forests cover 2,025,400 acres.

Mineral deposits of great variety; about 35 mining concessions, embracing nearly 20,000 acres; minerals worked include iron, copper, zinc, lead, silver, manganese, and various other earths.

Commerce.—Leading imports: Cereals, textiles, coal; exports; agricultural products, raw minerals, wines.

Recent History.—Gained much territory in First and Second Balkan Wars and more as member of Allies in World War. Attacked Turks, but was badly defeated and forced to give up Smyrna and all land in Asia Minor. Recent agreement with Turks returns Eastern Thrace to Turkey.

ITALY.—

Agriculture.—Wheat, maize, oats, rice, hemp, flax, and potatoes are produced. Area under vineyards, 11,000,000 acres; olives, 5,760,000. Silk culture is carried on all over Italy. Live stock embraces cattle, sheep, goats, swine. Forest area 15,700 sq. m.

Manufactures.—Silk most important textile. Other industries: Cotton and woolen textiles, lace, leather, furniture, art goods, etc. Textile industries employ more than 400,000 wage earners.

Minerals.—Principal minerals: Sulphur, zinc, iron, lead; besides copper and manganese. Value of marble quarried, $3,700,000 annually.

Commerce.—Leading imports: Wheat, coal, raw cotton, machinery. Exports: Raw silk, cocoons, cotton goods, silk goods, fruits and vegetables, fresh and prepared; olive oil, wines.

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
634. **Naples,** largest city; 723,208. **Milan,** center of silk industry and trade, 663,059. Turin, textile industries, 451,994. Palermo, 345,589; Genoa, 234,800; Florence, 205,589; Venice, 151,841; Messina, 149,778; Bologne, 152,009; Catania, 149,295; and Leghorn, 98,321. **SAN MARINO.**—Independence of Republic recognized by Church, 1231. **Area,** 38 sq. m. Consists of a craggy mountain—Titano, 2,420 feet—within Italian territory. **Climate** in winter severe but healthful. **Population,** 10,489, generally engaged in **agriculture** and **cattle** trading. San Marino, capital; population 2,000. **Foreign Dependencies:** Eritrea, Italian, Somaliland, Tripoli and Cyrenaica (all in Africa).		
CZECHO-SLOVAKIA.— **Area,** 54,438 sq. m. **Population,** 13,604,807. **Physical Features.**—Very little of Czecho-Slavakia is lowland. Country consists of elevated ridges with lofty mountain peaks. **Climate.**—Healthful and invigorating but inclined to Continental extremes. **Cities.**—Prague, capital and largest city, population 676,476. Brno, population 221,422. Bratislava 93,329.	**CZECHO-SLOVAKIA.—** **History.**—A new country carved out of the old Austro-Hungarian Empire. It includes Bohemia, Moravia, most of Silesia which were formerly Austrian provinces and Slavakia which was an indeterminate portion of North Hungary. **Government.** — The republic dates from October 28, 1918. The president is elected by parliament for seven years. There are two chambers, one of 300 deputies elected for six years and the other 150 senators elected for eight years. **Education.**—Free and compulsory.	**CZECHO-SLOVAKIA.—** **Industries.** — Manufacture of sugar, beer (Pilsner), glass making, porcelain, textile working, glove making, cotton and woolen goods. **Agriculture.** — Principal crops: sugar beets, potatoes, rye, barley, oats and little wheat. Live stock. Cattle and pigs are the most numerous farm animals. **Minerals.**—Coal, iron, gold, silver, copper and antimony. Clays, sandstone and quartz for china and glass factories are extensively quarried.
NETHERLANDS **Area.**—12,582 sq. m., divided among 11 provinces and 1,123 communes. Length, 196 m.; breadth, 109. **Population.**—6,841,155; per sq. m., 547. Foreigners, 69,975, of whom 37,532 were German. Inhabitants belong to Germanic race; Dutch the common language. **Physical Features.**—The kingdom of the Netherlands (also known as Holland, from its leading Province) occupies a portion of the Great Germanic Plain, and is protected against the sea by dunes and dikes. Mean elevation only 37 ft.; culminating point 787 ft.; 25 per cent of the total area below mean sea-level. One-fourth of area below sea level. Abounds in inland waters. Length of navigable waters — excluding canals — about 3,000 m. Chief river—Rhine. **Climate.**—Humid and variable; winters severe. **Cities.**—The Hague, official population, 353,286. Amsterdam, commercial capital, seaport; 642,162. Rotterdam, seaport, 510,538. Utrecht, 140,189; Groningen, 89,895; Haarlem, 76,858; Arnhem, 70,714; Leyden, 65,635. **Colonies.**—East Indies (incl. New Guinea), 759,280 sq. m., population 36,040,000; West Indies, 50,253 sq. m., population 113,000.	**NETHERLANDS.—** **History.**—In Middle Ages, Netherlands and Belgium divided among Brabant, Flanders, Holland, and other duchies; united with Burgundy 15th century; passed to Hapsburg family, 1477; later to Spain. Revolution under William of Orange, and Pacification of Ghent, 1567; Union of Utrecht, 1579; Dutch Republic acknowledged, 1648; united with England, 1689; conquered by France, 1794; kingdom under Louis Bonaparte, 1806; union with Belgium in Kingdom of Netherlands, 1815; revolution, 1830, ended, 1833; settlement with Belgium, 1839. **Government, etc.**—Hereditary constitutional monarchy. Executive vested in Sovereign; legislative in Sovereign and States General—composed of an upper and lower chamber. **Education, etc.**—Public schools free and compulsory. Higher education includes four universities and one technical college. Dutch Reformed (Presbyterian), to which Court belongs, numbers most adherents; Roman Catholics next; Jews, 110,000.	**NETHERLANDS.—** **Agriculture, etc.**—Principal crops: Rye, potatoes, oats, wheat. Area of orchards and gardens 151,670 acres; cherries, apples, pears, and strawberries largely grown. Bulbs grown extensively. Area under forests, 613,505 acres. **Live Stock.**—Rearing of live stock a prominent pursuit. Area under pasture, 2,921,711 acres—supporting many cattle, horses, sheep, and swine. Dairy products excellent. **Fisheries,** especially herring, valuable. **Manufactures.** — Shipbuilding and sugar refining among the foremost industries; also distilling and brewing. Other important industries include the manufacture of textiles, carpets, leather, and paper, chocolate and cacao, pottery, production of gold and silver articles, diamond cutting. **Commerce.**—Chief imports: Cereals, iron, steel, coal, textiles, coffee: Exports; cereals, butter, cheese, cattle.
NORWAY **Area, etc.**—Area, 124,199 sq. m. Surface a series of elevated plateaus; elevation of 57 per cent of area 1,000 feet or more (Goldhoppinger, 8,540 feet). Coast indented by fjords and fringed with islands; famous whirlpool, the Maelstrom, between two Lofoden islands. **Population.**—2,646,306; per sq. m. 12; including 20,000 Lapps and 9,000 Finns. **Climate.**—Mild and healthful; temperature modified by maritime	**NORWAY.—** **History.**—Native kings ruled, 824-1028; Christianity introduced 998. Reign of Canute, 1028-1035. Subject to Sweden 1319; to Denmark, 1380; united with both, 1397. Union with Sweden, 1814; dissolved, 1905. **Government, etc.**—Nominally a Constitutional Monarchy, virtually a Republic. Executive represented by King and Council of State; Legislative vested in Storthing—elected by the people. **Education, etc.**—Primary edu-	**NORWAY.—** **Agriculture, etc.** — Unproductive area, 75 per cent of whole; forests, 22 per cent; cultivated, 3 per cent. Value of cereals about $11,000,000 annually. Live stock includes cattle, sheep, reindeer. Estimated forest area, 26,685 sq. m.—chiefly pine. Value timber exports, $21,300,000. **Fisheries** constitute a leading industry. **Commerce.**—Imports: Breadstuffs, textiles. Exports: Timber and woodenware, animal products.

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
situation. Rainfall abundant on coast, scanty in interior. **Cities.**—Christiania, capital, chief city and seaport; population, 258,341. Bergen, port, 91,081. Trondhjem, 54,520. Hammerfest, northernmost town of Europe; 2,709.	cation free and obligatory. National church Evangelical Lutheran.	
PORTUGAL **Area, etc.**—Area, 35,490 sq. m., including Azores — 922 — and Madeira—314. Mountainous in north, northeast, and extreme south. Lowlands on west coast. Principal rivers, Douro, Tagus, Guadiana. **Climate.**—Warm and equable. Rainfall excessive on northern coast, scanty south of Tagus. Mean temperature Lisbon: January, 50 deg.; August, 71 deg.; year, 60 deg. **Population.**—5,957,985, including: Azores, 242,613; Madeira, 169,777. Per sq. m., 152.8. Inhabitants of same origin as Spaniards; language a dialect of Spanish. **Cities.**—Lisbon, capital and chief seaport; population 356,009. Oporto, population, 167,955. **Colonies.**—754,090 sq. m., population 6,959,000, in Africa; 7,715 sq. m., population 795,000 in Asia.	**PORTUGAL.—** **History.**—Ancient inhabitants Celts. Country made a Roman province about 137 B. C. Conquered by Visigoths 5th century; by Moors, 713. Kingdom established 1143. Became great maritime power during 15th and 16th centuries. Conquered by Spain 1580; independence recovered 1640. French invasion, Court escaped to Brazil, 1807; Court returned 1821. Constitutional charter granted 1826. Republic established 1910. **Government, etc.**—Republic. **Education, etc.**—75 per cent of people illiterate. Primary schools, 23 normal schools, and one university. State religion, Roman Catholic; all others tolerated. Protestants about 5,000; chapels at Lisbon and Oporto.	**PORTUGAL.—** **Agriculture, etc.**—Over 54 per cent of total area productive, but largely uncultivated. Rye and barley grown chiefly in north; wheat in south; rice in marshy districts; corn everywhere. Olives, figs, grapes, oranges, etc., produced. Cattle reared throughout the country, sheep and goats largely in central districts, swine in south. Fisheries: Catch chiefly sardines, tunny and cod. **Manufactures.**—Wine - making chief industry. Exports: Common wine, port, Madeira, liqueur. Cork industry second in importance. Other industries, textiles, olive oil, earthenware, leather, machinery. **Minerals** abundant but undeveloped, include copper, sulphur, coal, tungsten, lead, and antimony worked; salt, gypsum, and marble exported. **Commerce.**—Leading imports: Textiles, wheat, coal, codfish. Exports: Wine, cork, grain, fish, chiefly to Great Britain and France.
RUMANIA seaport; population 498,667. Oporto, population, 203,981. It extends north and south from the Transylvania Alps to the Danube and Prut, and includes also the Dobruja, with the Delta of the Danube. Greater part of country level; western district hilly or mountainous with extensive **forests.** Area of crown forests, 2,759,930 acres. Danube Delta within Roumania; country well watered by its tributaries. **Climate** one of extremes and wide range. **Chief Towns.**—Bucharest, 345,628; Chishanan, 114,100; Cernauti, 87.128.	**RUMANIA.—** **Country.**—Consists of the Danubian principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia, united, 1861; independence from Turkey confirmed 1878; raised to a kingdom, 1881. **Government.**—A constitutional monarchy. **Nationality.**—Roumanians (speaking a Latin tongue) 88 per cent; 304,000 Jews, 292,000 Gypsies, etc. **Religion.**—Greek Orthodox, 93 per cent.	**RUMANIA.—** **Industries.**—70 per cent of the total population supported by agriculture; 29 per cent of area cultivated, 21 per cent under grass, 17 per cent wooded. **Commerce.**—Chief trade with Germany, United Kingdom and Austria. Staple export, corn. **Recent History.**—Gained territory from Bulgaria at close of Second Balkan War. Lost territory to Austria and Bulgaria in 1918. Gained much territory at the expense of Russia, Bulgaria and Austria, according to the Treaty of Versailles 1919.
RUSSIA **Area** of Russian Republic and Subsidiary States, 8,101,568 square miles, more than one-seventh of the total land surface of globe. Russia, largest country in Europe, area 1,180,000 square miles, or about half that of entire continent. Asiatic Russia, 6,207,662. **Population** of entire territory, 131,546,000; European Russia, 90,709,000. About forty languages and dialects spoken. **Physical Features.**—Surface of European Russia a succession of lowland plains sloping gradually toward Baltic, Black, Caspian, and White seas. Tundras—frozen marshy plains—occupy the north, immense forests the center, and steppes—open treeless plains—the south. Central plateau culminates in Valdai Hills (1,100 feet); Ural Mountains geographical boundary between Europe and Asia (Tol-Pas 5,540 feet, highest point); Caucasus on southern border line (Mt. Elbruz 18,463 feet, highest elevation	**RUSSIA.—** **History.**—Territory ancient Sarmatia; early overrun by Goths, Huns, Avars, Magyars, etc. Varangians, under Ruric, entered Novgorod about 862. Christianity introduced 10th century. Mongol invasion and conquest, 1240; freedom from Mongol rule, 1480. Phenomenal development under Peter the Great, 1689-1725. Russo-Turkish wars, 1768-74, 1789-92. War with Sweden, 1788-90, with France, 1798-1801. More recent events include invasion of Russia by Napoleon, and burning of Moscow by Russians, 1812. Crimean war, 1853-56. Emancipation of serfs, 1861. Russian America sold to United States, 1867. Russo-Japanese war, 1904-5; check on Russian advance in far east. Entered World War against Germany in 1914. After revolution of March, 1917, which overthrew the Czar, lost interest in war and made peace in 1918. Fought with Poland, 1920. **Government.**—In 1905 a constitutional hereditary monarchy,	**RUSSIA.—** **Agriculture** chief industry of people. Distribution of land in European Russia: arable, 419,173 acres; orchards, meadows and grazing, 197,532; forests, 480,700. Products of European and Asiatic Russia: Wheat, rye, barley, oats, potatoes, hay, flax, linseed, hemp, hempseed, and tobacco. Area under vines, 16,000,000 acres; wine product, 4,550,000 gallons. **Live Stock.**—Vast numbers of cattle raised on the steppes. European Russia raises horses, cattle, sheep, goats, swine, in southern Russia 225,000 camels. **Minerals.**—Most valuable deposits found in Ural Mountains. Petroleum, gold, platinum, silver, coal, naphtha, salt, copper and zinc are also mined. **Manufactures** show marked increase since emancipation of serfs, 1861. Manufactories in European Russia, and four governments of Caucasus, employed 1,951,955 persons, of whom 521,236 were women. Peasant industries, engaged in dur-

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
of Europe). Petchora (900 miles) most important river of Arctic basin, Neva of Baltic, Dniester (700 miles) and Dnieper (1,200 miles) of Black Sea, and Volga (2,200 miles) and Ural (1,150 miles) of the Caspian. Principal lakes: Ladoga (7,000 sq. m.), largest in Europe; Onega, 3,763 sq. m. **Climate.**—Varied, owing to wide range of latitude; winters severe everywhere; summers hot. **Cities.**—Petrograd (St. Petersburg), former capital and largest city has extensive manufacturing and commercial interests. Population 1,907,708 Moscow, capital, population 1,481,200. Warsaw, 756,426; Odessa, 449,673; Kharkov, 173,989; Kief, 309,000; Riga, 282,230; Lodz, 351,570; Kazan, 143,707; Saratof, 137,147; Kishenef, 125,787; Vilna, 162,633; Samara, 89,999; Berdichef, 53,351; Astrakkan, 121,580.	now a republic. European Russia is a republic of Soviets of workers, soldiers' and peasants' delegates. **Religion.** — Established religion of Empire Graeco-Russian, Orthodox Catholic Faith. Restraints are laid on Jews and dissenters; both, often severely persecuted; restricted liberty extended to Protestantism of western Europe. Adherents of the Greek Orthodox and United Church: 87,000,000; Roman Catholics, 2,500,-000; Mohammedans, 14,000,000; Jews, 5,200,000; Lutherans, 3,600,-000. **Education.**—Most of the schools are under the Ministry of Public Instruction; elementary schools and those under Holy Synod about equal in number.	ing winter months, are still prevalent. Russia ranks fourth among cotton—spinning countries. The manufacture of linen is also important. Output of sugar works and distilleries have notably increased. **Commerce.**—Leading imports: Machinery, raw cotton, leather and hides, textiles. Exports: Cereals and flour, timber, eggs and dairy products, naphtha, naphtha oils, flax, oil cake and linseed, furs and leather, and raw metals, chiefly platinum.

DIVISION AND FORMER DEPENDENCIES OF RUSSIA

FINLAND.—Republic, ceded to Russia by Sweden, 1809, became republic in 1917. **Area,** 149,586 sq. m. **Agriculture** and **cattle breeding** chief pursuits. **Forests** cover 50,498,000 acres, or 63 per cent of area; exports of lumber large. **Manufactures** are developing rapidly; textiles, lumber, and wood pulp and paper lead. **Population,** 3,335,237—86 per cent Finns, 13 per cent Swedes. **Education**—only .04 per cent children of school age without instruction. Lutheran **religion** predominates. Helsingfors, capital; population, 188,922.

SIBERIA.—Extensive region—part of Russia. **Area,** 4,786,730 sq. m. Surface presents mountains, plateaus, fertile plains, and treeless tundras; chief rivers, Ob, Yenisei, and Lena, important channels of communication and trade; lakes numerous, Baikal largest. **Climate** severe; winters everywhere cold; summers hot. **Population,** estimated, 8,220,100. Tomsk, commercial and intellectual capital of West Siberia; population, 107,711. Irkutsk, capital of East Siberia, 108,060. **Agriculture** successfully carried on below 62d parallel; prairies of southwest, Altai valleys, and Baraba Steppe granaries of Siberia; cattle breeding widely followed. **Manufactures** and **mining** backward; gold and silver the chief minerals; lead, copper, iron, and coal mined in small quantities; salt abounds; precious stones obtained. Imports chiefly manufactured goods and groceries; exports live stock products and furs.

BOKHARA.—Russian vassal State in Central Asia, ruled by Amir. **Area,** 83,000 sq. m. Western part lowland; middle and eastern parts mountainous. **Climate** varied. Products are corn, fruit, silk, tobacco, and hemp. Sheep, goats, horses, and camels bred. **Minerals** include gold, salt, alum, and sulphur. Chief exports silk, cotton, rugs, furs, etc. **Population,** about 1,250,000. Bokhara, capital, about 75,000 inhabitants. **Religion** Mohammedan.

KHIVA.—Russian vassal State in Central Asia, ruled by Khan. **Area,** 24,000 sq. m.; oasis watered by canals, 5,210 sq. m.; rest steppes. Principal commercial products—cotton and silk. Estimated **population,** 800,000; largely Turkomans. Mohammedanism prevails. Khiva, capital; population, 5,000.

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
POLAND **Area.**—Estimated 149,042 sq. m. **Population.**—About 25,406,103. **Climate.**—Poland has a transitional climate between the Oceanic type in England and the Continental type in Eastern Russia. Baltic coast is the only place above freezing in January. **Physical Features.**—Hilly in the North. Part of the great European plain lies just to the South. Further to the south are the plateaus which reach to the Carpathian mountains on the southern border. **Cities.** — Warsaw population, 931,000. Largest town Lodz, 452,-000; Cracow, 182,000 and Posen, 170,000. Lwow, 219,500, (*Formerly called Lemberg.) **Danzig.**—Established a free city by treaty of Versailles. Population, 200,000. Important grain and timber port.	**POLAND.**— **History.**—Poland is centrally situated in Europe and is a transition area between Eastern and Western Europe. It occupies the gangway between the Carpathian mountains and the Baltic seas through which passes most traffic between the two sections of the Continent. In 1914 the country was divided in allegiance but under the treaty of Versailles it was declared an inde pendent country. **Government.**—Republic. President elected 1919 to serve four years	**POLAND.**— **Agriculture.** — Chief products: rye, oats, potatoes and sugar beets. **Manufactures.**—Include spirits, best sugar, hardware, engines, boots, shoes and embroidery.

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
SPAIN **Area.**—194,783 sq. m., divided into 49 provinces; Canary Isles—2,807 sq. m.—and Balearic—1,935. **Population.**—20,783,844; per sq. m., 100.5. Basques, in north, differ in race and language from other inhabitants, number 440,000; Moriscoes, in south, 60,000. **Physical Features.**—Country, next to Switzerland, highest in Europe; largely a central plateau—inclosed by Cantabrian and Pyrenees mountains on north and Sierra Morena on south. Plateau traversed east and west by mountain ranges. Sierra Nevada, near Mediterranean coast, contain southernmost glacier of Europe. Principal rivers: Tagus Douro, Ebro, Guadiana, Guadalquivir. **Climate.**—Varied; temperate in north, subject to extremes in interior, hot in south and southeast. Rainfall scanty and irregular on plateau, more abundant in north. **Cities.**—Madrid, capital; population, 608,793. Barcelona, 582,240; chief seaport and commercial city. Valencia, 236,447: manufactures silk, velvet, cigars; exports fruit and wine. Seville, 155,366; manufactures cigars and pottery. Malaga 133,045; second seaport. **Colonies and Dependencies.**—84,422 sq. m., population 690,000 including the "Presidios" (Ceuta, etc.), in Africa, etc.	**SPAIN.**— **History.**—Early inhabitants Celts and Iberians. Conquests by Carthaginians 237-219 B. C.; by Romans 201-25 B. C. Kingdom of Visigoths founded 414 A. D., overthrown 711. Christian kingdoms founded: Asturias, 718; Navarre, 873; Castile, 1033; Aragon, 1035. Inquisition established 1480-84; Union of Castile and Aragon 1479; Granada taken, Moorish power destroyed, 1492; Ferdinand and Isabella rulers of all Spain 1512; zenith of power 16th century; Peninsular War 1808-14; republic formed 1873, overthrown, Bourbons restored 1874. **Government, etc.**—Constitutional monarchy. Executive power vested in King, acting through council of ministers; Legislative in Cortes with King. Cortes composed of a Senate and Congress; Chambers have equal authority. **Education, etc.**—Compulsory. There are ten universities. State Church Roman Catholic; restricted liberty of worship allowed Protestants. **Language.**—Castilian. In the North, still 440,000 Basques; in the Sierra Nevada, 60,000 Moriscoes (descendants of the Moors, and 50,000 Gypsies).	**SPAIN.**— **Agriculture, etc.**—Deficient and irregular water supply a handicap to agriculture. Principal crops, rye, barley, wheat, Indian corn, esparto, flax, and hemp; all cereals, including rice. Culture of vine leading industry; nearly 25 per cent of tilled area under vineyards and fruits; wine, raisins, and grapes, with olives and nuts, exported. Live stock, chiefly mules, asses, cattle, sheep, goats. **Fisheries.**—Most important, sardines, tunny, and cod. **Manufactures** with exception of wine, olive oil, and corks chiefly for domestic consumption. Manufacture of textiles, especially cotton, and of leather, paper, glass, and metals, leading industries. **Minerals** varied and abundant; chiefly coal, iron, copper, lead, zinc, manganese, mercury, silver, salt. **Commerce.**—Leading imports: Raw and manufactured textiles, foodstuffs, machinery, vehicles. Exports: Iron, copper, lead, wine, fruits, cork, and olive oil.
SWEDEN **Area, etc.**—Area, 173,035 sq. m. Surface, highlands in west, joined by inclined plain sloping toward Baltic Sea, diversified by narrow valleys and lakes. **Population.**—6,000,000. **Physical Features.**—Sweden occupies the Eastern half of the Peninsula of Scandinavia. It is in the main a level country, rising into mountains only along the Norwegian boundary (Kebnekaisse, 6,890 ft.). Lakes and rivers abound. 44 per cent of the area is still wooded. **Climate.**—Healthful; range of temperature between winter and summer, wide. Rainfall heaviest near coast. **Cities.**—Stockholm, capital; commercial and industrial center; population, 425,000. Gothenburg, principal port; population, 220,000. Malmo 115,000.	**SWEDEN.**— **History.**—Regular government established, 1279. Sweden, Denmark, and Norway united in one kingdom, 1397; independence recovered, 1521. Reformation, 1527. Gustavus Adolphus head of Protestant cause in Germany, 1628. Conspicuous in European politics throughout 17th century. Norway united to Sweden; union dissolved, 1905. **Government, etc.**—Constitutional Monarchy; Executive vested in King and Council of State. Legislative in Parliament of two Houses. **Education, etc.**—Elementary education free and compulsory. State religion, Lutheran, all others tolerated. Evangelical Lutherans, 5,000,000; other Protestants, 60,000.	**SWEDEN.**— **Agriculture, etc.**—About 8 per cent of land area cultivated; 52 per cent forest. Chief crops: Oats, rye, barley, wheat, potatoes. Live stock: Horses, cattle, sheep, pigs. Forests of pine, fir, larch, etc.; products form staple export. **Manufactures.**—Most flourishing connected with iron, timber, sugar, cotton; 65,000 people employed in wood industries. **Minerals.**—Country rich in minerals. Output includes iron ore, silver and lead, copper, zinc, and coal; gold, silver, lead, manganese, nickel, cobalt, also occur. **Commerce.**—Imports: Coal and coke, textiles, metal goods. Exports: Timber, animals, minerals.
SWITZERLAND **Area.**—15,976 sq. m., divided among 22 cantons. Greatest length east to west, 208 m.; breadth, 156. **Population.**— 3,861,508; per sq. m., 234. **Physical Features.**—Switzerland is essentially a country of lakes and mountains, of luxuriant pastures and desolate fields of snow and ice. Its altitudes vary from 663 ft. (Lago Maggiore) to 15,217 ft. (Monte Rosa), while its most populous section, the plateau stretching between Jura and the Alps, from the Lake of Geneva to that of Constance has an average elevation of little more than 1,300 feet. The most frequented passes leading into Italy are the Gt. St. Bernard,	**SWITZERLAND.**— **History.** — Prehistoric inhabitants, lake-dwellers; succeeded by Helvetii. Country conquered by Cæsar and added to Roman Empire 58 B. C. Settlements of Burgundians and Alemanni 5th century. Country largely belonged to German Empire 9th to 14th centuries. Union to resist Hapsburg oppression 1291, defeated Austrians at Sempach 1386. Swiss independence acknowledged by Maximilian I, 1499. Confederation subjugated by French, and Helvetic Republic formed 1798. Independence and neutrality secured 1815. **Government, etc.**—A federal republic. Legislative power vested in Federal Assembly of 2 chambers	**SWITZERLAND.**— **Agriculture, etc.**—Of productive area 36 per cent under grass and meadow. Chief agricultural crops, oats, rye, potatoes. Pastoral interests predominate. Live stock: Horses, cattle, sheep, swine, goats. Principal agricultural industries, manufacture of cheese and condensed milk. Forest area 2,105,214 acres; about 1,119,270 acres under State supervision; reduction of this area unlawful. **Manufactures** second to agriculture in importance. Leading industries: Textiles—especially silk and cotton—clocks, watches, machinery, wine, and spirits. Chocolate manufactures, wood carving, and concentrated food products are

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
8,110 ft.; Simplon, 6,600 ft., St Gotthard, 6,890 ft.; Splügen, 6,946 ft.; and Maloja, 5,940 ft. **Climate and Vegetation.** — Vary according to elevation; and while olives and evergreens flourish on the Italian slopes, deciduous forest trees, vines, and cornfields scarcely extend above 2,600 ft. **Cities.**—Berne, capital; population, 104,626. Zurich, largest city, seat of textile industries; population, 207,161. Basel, 135,976. Geneva, 135,059, center of watch and clock making; Lausanne, 68,533; St. Gallen, 50,625; La Chaux de Fonds, 39,608; Luzern, 32,801; Biel (Bienne), 25,394; Neuchâtel, 22,350; Winterthur, 25,066. **LIECHTENSTEIN**—Principality between Tyrol and Switzerland, 61 sq. m., population 9,300.	—State and National Councils. Executive in Federal Council—7 members—chosen by Federal Assembly; President and Vice-President of Council first magistrates of Republic. **Education, etc.**—Primary education free and compulsory; law rigidly enforced except in Roman Catholic cantons. Universities, 7. Freedom guaranteed all religious faiths. German spoken in 15 cantons, French 5, Italian 1, Romansch 1.	also important. **Commerce.**—Exports: Silk, cottons. Imports: Cereals, silk goods, cotton, metals.
TURKISH EMPIRE **EUROPEAN TURKEY.** — The immediate possessions of Turkey in Europe were much curtailed by the treaty of Berlin (1878), and more recently by the Balkan war; Turkey, driven from Europe by the World War, regained Eastern Thrace as the result of the War with Greece in 1921-22. **Population** of Empire, 10,000,000. **Cities.**—Constantinople, capital, chief port, and commercial center; contains mosque of St. Sophia, built 558 A. D.; royal palace, university, libraries, etc.; population, 1,106,000. Adrianople, center of large trade and manufactures, 125,000. **CRETE,** island in Mediterranean, former province of Turkey, was under control of Greece following the Balkan Wars and is now part of that country.	**TURKISH EMPIRE—** **History.**—Peopled originally by Tartars, founders of Empire in Asia Minor under Othman, 1299; most of Balkan Peninsula conquered 14th century; Constantinople taken, 1453; zenith of power under Solyman, 1520-66. Repulsed before Vienna, 1683. War with Russia, 1876, resulted disastrously to Turkey; by Treaty of Berlin, 1878 possessions of Empire greatly reduced, and by the Balkan War of 1912-13 greatly more so. Turkey badly defeated as one of Germany's Allies in the World War recovered some of the lost territory in the War with Greece, 1921-22. **Government, etc.**—An independent government set up at Angora under a national assembly had as its head Mustapha Kemal Pasha. The Sultan, Mohammed VI, abdicated in November. 1922. **Education, etc.**—Education encouraged by Koran; public schools established in most towns. Mohammedans constitute one-half population; other officially recognized religions, Roman Catholic, Greek Armenian, Syrian, Maronite, Protestant, Jewish, Nestorian.	**TURKISH EMPIRE.—** **Agriculture.** — Estimated area under cultivation, Ottoman Empire, 44,000,000 acres; under forests, 21,000,000 acres. Principal products, fruits, nuts, tobacco, cereals, cotton, coffee, madder, opium, gums, wine, and silk cocoons. Production of oil of roses encouraged by the government. Value Bosporus fisheries, $1,500,000; Mediterranean coast produces sponges; Red Sea, mother-of-pearl; Persian Gulf, pearls. **Manufactures.**—Rugs made on hand looms largely exported; brass and copper utensils and paper and glass manufactured to limited extent. **Minerals** include copper, lead, silver, iron, manganese chrome, bitumen, sulphur, salt, alum. Coal abundant. **Commerce.**—Imports: Textiles, sugar, flour, petroleum. Exports: Grapes, fruits, silk, cocoons, olive oil, mohair, opium, tobacco.
JUGO-SLAVIA **Area.**—Estimated 95,628 sq. m. **Climate.**—Healthful and invigorating. **Population.** — Estimated, 11,337,686. **Cities.**—Belgrade the largest town, population 120,000. Monastir, population 80,000.	**JUGO-SLAVIA.—** **History.**—Jugo-Slavia lies between Bulgaria on the east, Italy on the west, the river Drave on the north, the Adriatic on the southwest and Greece on the south. It is a newly-established kingdom made up of the old kingdoms of Servia and Montenegro, the former Austrian territories of Boanice and Herzegovina, Croalia Slavonia and parts of Banat, Backa, Styria, Carniola and Dalmatra. **Government.**—Kingdom established 1919 with King of Servia Alexandria I, reigning. He was appointed regent by the League of Nations.	**JUGO-SLAVIA.—** **Minerals.**—Coal, iron ore, lead and quick silver is one of the world's chief sources of supply of quicksilver. **Farming.** — The chief cereal product is maize. Mediterranean fruits, chiefly plums, and tobacco are successfully grown. Vineyards occupy favorable situations. Swine, cattle, sheep and goats are raised. North of the Danube, wheat is grown extensively.

ASIA

Geographical Facts

Area.—Total area, 17,074,050 sq. m., or more than four times that of Europe; islands, 1,039,860 sq. m.; peninsulas, 3,300,000. Extreme length east and west, 5,990 miles greatest breadth, 5,360.

Population (estimated), 880,000,000 — irregularly distributed; southeastern portion of continent estimated to contain seven-eighths of entire population; average density of remainder about 8 per sq. m.

Physical Features.—Asia, the "great" continent of the Old World is really one with Europe, which is merely its largest and most important peninsula, and is joined to Africa by a narrow isthmus. Distance from Asia Minor to Bering Strait, 5,990 miles; from C. Chelyuskin to C. Buru, near Singapore, 5,360 miles. The lofty tableland of Tibet rises in the center of Asia like a huge citadel. It is bounded in the south by the Himalaya (Mt. Everest, 29,000 feet) in the North by the Kwen-lun; ramifies in the east and southeast into China and East China, and is continued in the west by the Hindu Kush (Tirach Mir, 25,426) and the plateaus of Iran, Armenia, and Asia Minor. A second plateau, of much inferior height, lies to the north of Tibet, being girt by the Pamir, the Tien-shan (Khan Ten ri, 24,000) and other ranges. It includes the basin of the Tarim (Lob Nor, 2,600 feet); the Turfan basin, believed to be depressed below the sea-level; and the great desert of Gobi. The principal isolated highland regions of Asia are the mountains of Corea, the Deccan, the mountains of Syria and Arabia, the Caucasus (Mt. Elbruz, 18,530 feet), the Caspian through Turkistan and West Siberia to the Arctic Ocean; that of the Euphrates and Tigris, of Hindustan and China.

Hydrography.—A large portion of Inner Asia forms a continental basin, sending no river to the sea, and in many parts riverless. Within it lie the Caspian Sea, 169,380 sq. m. (84 ft. below sea-level); L. Aral (26,170 sq. m.), fed by the Syr and Amu Daria (Oxus); L. Balkash (1,135 sq. m.) with the Ili, Lob Nor, Kuku Nor (10,400 ft.). The great rivers of the continent are: the Ob (drainage area, 1,190,000 sq. m.), the Yenisei (987,000 sq. m.), which flows through L. Baikal (12,441 sq. m.), the Lena (871,000 sq. m.), the Amur (807,000 sq. m.), the Hwang-ho (386,000 sq. m.), the Yang-tse-kiang (723,000 sq. m.), the Ganges 500,000 sq. m., and the Euphrates (255,000 sq. m.).

Climate.—Great contrast between the dry cold of North Siberia and the hot damp of the Malay Arch. Temperature is generally lower than that of Europe under similar latitudes, and the range between summer and winter is greater. In Arabia and parts of Central Asia, little or no rain falls.

Political and Social Facts

History.—Asia regarded as birthplace of mankind; region of Hindu Kush, according to oldest Asiatic legends, first home of man. Great religions of the world had their origin in Asia. Continent seat of many ancient civilizations. Chinese located in present home about 3000 B. C. Assyrian and Babylonian empires constituted earliest civilization in Western Asia, annals dating from 4000 B. C. exist; zenith of power 7th and 8th centuries B. C. Rise of Mohammedan power 6th century A. D.; climax under Harun-al-Rashid, 9th century. Genghis Khan (Mongol) conquered Central Asia, 1218-21; Kublai Khan established Mongol rule from Dnieper to Sea of Japan, Siberia to Malay Peninsula, 13th century. Ottoman Empire founded in Asia Minor, 1288; Mogul Empire in India, 1526. Beginning of British influence in Asia 17th century, greatly extended, 1760-1858. Russian power dates from 16th century. Political influence balanced by British supremacy in south, Russian in north.

Government. — Political divisions comprise the monarchies of Japan, Siam, Afghanistan, Persia, Nepal, Bhutan, and Oman; the Republic of China; independent tribes in Arabia; and Russian, British, Turkish, Dutch, French, American, German, and Portuguese possessions.

Religion.—Dominant religions: Brahmanism or Hinduism—confined to India; Buddhism—prevailing beyond the Ganges and in China, Japan, and Ceylon; Mohammedanism—in Western Asia, partly in India and Eastern Archipelago. Estimated number of Christians, over 20,000,000.

Races. — Mongolian race — peoples of China, Tibet, Indo-China, parts of Siberia, and dominant people of Turkey; Aryan—peoples of Hindustan, Afghanistan, Baluchistan, Persia, Caucasus, besides Russians in Siberia; Greeks, Armenians, etc.; Semitic—Syrians, Arabians, Jews. Malays in Malacca Peninsula and East Indies.

Industry and Commerce

Forests of Northern Asia not widely different from those of Europe and America. Siberian steppes bounded south by forests of pine, birch, willow; poplars, elms, and maples border river courses. Himalayas chief timber district; slopes clothed with forests of pine, oak, walnut, maple; fig trees and banyans characterize lower ridges. Teakwood found throughout India. Other trees of commercial importance, palm, sal, sandalwood, satinwood, etc. Dyewoods and medicinal gums obtained in Southern Asia.

Vegetation, etc.—Vegetation rich and diversified. Herbaceous plants abound in Siberia. Below 62d parallel soil generally adapted to agriculture. Steppes and plateaus of western and central regions abound in rich pastures. Irrigation employed in western Asia and interior. India and China leading agricultural countries. Rice, sugar, cane, indigo, hemp, cotton, tea, various nuts and spices, and most fruits of temperate zone, native to Asia. Other products, cereals, coffee, leguminous plants. Animals native to Asia—elephant, buffalo, camel, yak, reindeer, etc.—largely utilized as beasts of burden.

Minerals.—Vast coal fields in China; Japan, Burma, and Bengal also rich in coal. Excellent iron ores found in China, Japan, India, and Arabia. Malay tin mines unrivaled. Copper produced in China, India, and Japan; lead in China, Burma, Turkey, Arabia, and Persia; gold and silver in Siberia, India, China, Japan, Malay Peninsula, Persia, and Arabia. Precious stones widely distributed. Burma produces finest rubies in the world, besides sapphires, jade, amber, etc.; turquoise mined in Persia and Tibet in Altai and Ural Mountains jasper, malachite, and beryl abound. Petroleum is important product of Burma, and occurs in Siam and Euphrates Valley. Sulphur found in Japan and Arabia. Kaolin deposits in China and Japan furnish material for pottery. Salt abundant.

AFGHANISTAN

Area, 245,000 sq. m.

Population estimated at 6,380,500, divided into tribes. Afghans—Pathans—2,500,000.

Physical Features.—Greater part of surface mountainous; elevation of plains with few exceptions over 4,000 ft., with large areas above 7,000. Principal mountain range Hindu Kush (20,000 ft.). Mountain ranges traversed by numerous passes, often of great military and

AFGHANISTAN—

History.—Belonged successively to the Greek and Persian empires; became an independent power, 1747; war with British 1838-42 and again in 1878.

Government nominally monarchical, under one hereditary prince (Ameer), whose power varies with his own character and fortune. Religion, Mohammedanism prevails.

AFGHANISTAN—

Agriculture largely dependent on irrigation. Valley of Kabul and districts of Herat and Kandahar fertile regions. In most districts cultivable crops yield two harvests during the year; spring crops chiefly wheat, barley, peas, and beans; autumn, rice, millet, maize, and arzun. Many characteristic plants abound, as madder and castor oil; others yielding various gum-resins, as asafetida—largely exported to India; and leguminous plants and

ASIA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
commercial importance. Largest rivers. Halmund and Kabul. **Climate** varied; generally healthful; subject to intense extremes of heat and cold. **Cities.**—Kabul, capital, notable strategic and commercial center; population, 60,000. Herat, of great military and strategic importance; natural emporium of trade; 45,000. Kandahar, chief commercial center of south, 25,000.		shrubs from which gums like the well-known tragacanth of commerce is obtained. Fruits produced in greatest profusion; fresh or preserved staple food for large class; preserved fruits exported in large quantities, especially from Kandahar. Domestic animals include camels, excellent horses, two varieties of fat-tailed sheep, goats, etc. **Manufactures** include munitions of war, made at Kabul; silks, largely made at Kandahar; carpets at Herat; felts, sheepskin "postins," and rosaries. Chief imports, textiles, indigo, sugar, drugs, and tea; exports, largely wool, silk, fruit, nuts, asafetida, horses, and spices. **Minerals** abundant. Iron, lead, antimony, and sulphur produced; copper, gold, gems, and niter found.
CHINA **Area.**—Total area, 3,913,560 sq. m. China proper 1,532,420 sq. m. **Population.**—Recent estimates, 436,094,954. China proper, 407-253,030. Majority of inhabitants Mongols; Manchus—former reigning family of that race—constitute only a small proportion. **Physical Features.**—China is shut off from the rest of Asia by deserts or lofty mountains, and only towards the northeast a natural highroad leads from it into Manchuria. It is generally hilly, even mountainous, but its two great rivers, the Hwang-ho, and Yang-tse-kiang, traverse in their lower courses a plain of exceeding fertility, 200,000 sq. m. in extent. **Climate** generally temperate but subject to wide annual range; summers hot, winters severe. **Cities.**—Peking, capital, consists of two walled cities. Imperial city and Chinese or commercial section; population, 1,000,000. Canton, a leading commercial city; population, 1,367,000. Shanghai, chief seaport; population, 651,000. **Hongkong,** an island near mouth of Canton River ceded to Great Britain, 1841; additional area on mainland leased to Britain by China, 1898; forms British Crown Colony. **Area,** total, 376 sq. m. Center of large trade; Chinese silk and tea trade largely through Hongkong. **Population,** 456,739. Victoria, capital. **Macao Island** at mouth of Canton River ceded to Portuguese during latter half of 16th century. **Area,** 5 sq. m. Trade, chiefly transit, in hands of Chinese; opium principal article. **Population,** 63,-991.	**CHINA** **History.**—Trustworthy history dates from about the era of Confucius, 6th century B. C. Tsin dynasty under which Great Wall was built began 249 B. C. In 220 A. D. country divided into the "Three Kingdoms." Complete unity of empire under Suy dynasty (590-618); period noted for promotion of science, education, industry, and commerce. Country invaded by Tartars 9th to 11th centuries; north occupied by Jenghiz Kahn 1215. Mongol dynasty established 1280; Ming, 1368, Manchus conquered country and founded last dynasty 1643. War with Great Britain, 1840-42, resulted in cession of Hongkong and opening of treaty ports. Amur country ceded to Russia 1858. War with Japan, 1894, resulted in defeat of China, independence of Korea, and cession of Formosa to Japan. In 1898 leases were granted on Port Arthur and Talienwan to Russia (later ceded to Japan), Wei-Hai-Wei, Great Britain, Kiau-Chau, Germany, and Bay of Kwang-chau, France. Revolution 1911-12; establishment of Republic February, 1912. **Government.**—Till 1911, an absolute monarchy. The superior offices being equally divided among Manchu and Chinese. As a result, however, of a wide-spread rebellion in 1911, a Republic was proclaimed, and the Manchu Emperor was forced to abdicate. **Education** along certain lines very general, yet large numbers of adults are illiterate. Larger cities have colleges for training candidates for government appointments.	**CHINA**— **Agriculture.** — Rice, sugar, cotton, indigo, etc., cultivated in south; cereals, peas, and beans in north. Culture of tea and silk extensive; most productive tea district south of Yang-tse-Kiang. Silkworms—native to China—reared in large numbers; silk of superior quality extensively produced. Opium grown in all provinces; area being gradually reduced. Vegetables, oil plants, and tobacco universal. Farm animals, oxen and buffaloes. **Manufactures.**—Chinese excel in manufactures of porcelain, silks, embroidery, and lacquered wares; carved goods—tortoise shell, ivory, horn—engraving, paper, ink also excellent. **Commerce.**—Imports, chief articles: Cotton, opium, rice, metals, and kerosene. Exports: Tea, silk. **Minerals.**—Coal in every province; probably most valuable deposits in the world. Iron ores abundant. Copper, tin, lead, silver, granite, porcelain clay, jasper, marble, porphyry, and gems found, Salt extensively produced.
INDIAN EMPIRE **Area.**—Total area, 1,802,629 sq. m.; British provinces, 1,093,074; native states, 709,555. **Population.**—319,075,132, viz.—British Provinces 1,093,074 sq. m., population, 244,267,542; Feudatory or Native States, 74,807,590. Baluchistan and tribes on the northwest frontier are all included in the above totals. **Physical Features.**—The Peninsula of India constitutes a well-defined geographical unit, shut off from the main body of Asia by the Himalayas and other mountain-	**INDIAN EMPIRE**— **History.**—Settled by Aryans at early period. Mohammedan invasions 11th century. Conquered by Genghis Khan, 1219. Visited by Vasco da Gama, 1497; Portuguese established trade, 1510. Mogul empire founded, 1519. English, Dutch, and French East India companies established, 1600,-2-4 British acquired Bombay 1662; Calcutta, 1698. Decline of Mogul empire, 1707; Persian invasion, Delhi sacked, inhabitants massacred, 1739. British successful in war with French, 1746-49. English	**INDIAN EMPIRE**— **Agriculture** supports seven-tenths of inhabitants. Crops include rice, wheat, sugar cane, tea. Chief districts Assam and Himalayas; coffee, eastern slopes of Ghauts; cotton, mainly on tablelands; fibers, jute leading product, Bengal; tobacco, most abundant on northern plains and in certain districts of Madras; opium culture Valley of Ganges and Central India; pepper on mountains in south; cinchona near Mysore and in Himalayas. Universal crops millet, pulse, oil seeds. Silk culture chiefly

Schools for extension of western languages and sciences greatly increasing. Naval and military schools connected with different arsenals.

Religion. — Chinese recognize three religions: Confucianism, Buddhism, and Taoism. Confucianism mainly professed by higher classes; majority of people Buddhists. Mohammedanism and Christianity both have large numbers of adherents.

ASIA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
ranges, whose passes are difficult to pass. Irrespective of the inner slopes of these mountains there are five distinct regions, viz.—(a) a great northern plain, which stretches from the Arabian Sea to the head of the Bay of Bengal, is watered by the rivers Indus and Ganges, and stretches eastward up the Brahmaputra into Assam; (b) a belt of hills and tablelands which bounds this plain in the south; (c) the plateau of the Deccan; (d and e) the two maritime lowlands being narrowed by the "Ghats." **Climate** varies with elevation. Generally hot everywhere except in mountain regions and on elevated tablelands. Heat of plains excessive. Climate greatly influenced by monsoons, periodical winds prevailing throughout southern Asia. **Cities.**—Calcutta, capital since 1773, chief commercial center of Asia; population, 1,263,293. Bombay, second commercial and chief manufacturing center of India; population, 1,172,953. Rangoon, third commercial city; population 339,527. Madras, fourth seaport in importance; seat of various societies and educational institutions; population, 522,951. Hyderabad, 404,225, Delhi, 303,148.	acquired Lower Burma, 1826; Punjab, 1857. Sepoy rebellion, 1857. Sovereignty conferred on British Crown, 1858; Victoria proclaimed Empress of India, 1877. Upper Burma annexed, 1891. **Government.**—Executive vested in a Gov.-General, and a "Council" of 5 members, all appointed by Great Britain. There is also a "Legislative Council" with from ten to sixteen additional members, nominated by the Gov.-General, partly on the recommendation of non-official bodies. The local governments enjoy a large measure of independence. The native states are subject to the control of the Central Government represented by Residents or Political Agents. **Education.**—In British India about 28 per cent of boys of school age attend school; less than 4 per cent of girls. Head of national system, universities at Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Allahabad, and the Punjab, Normal schools in every Province. Engineering, art, and technical schools. **Languages.**—162 languages are spoken, but only 23 by more than 1 million persons. Hindi taking the lead. Aryan languages (Hindi, Bengali, Marathi, Punjabi, Gujarathi, Uriya, Sindhi, etc.) are spoken by 75 per cent of population. **Religion.**—Hindus number nearly three-fourths of population; together with Mohammedans comprise 92 per cent of whole. Hindus, 217,587,000; Mohammedans, 66,623,412; Buddhists—mostly in Burma—10,721,449; Animists, 10,295,000; Sikhs, 3,014,446; Christians, 3,876,196.	**Industry and Commerce** in Bengal. Fruits of temperate and tropical zones grown. **Animals.**—Besides ordinary domestic animals India has the elephant, camel, humped cattle, yak, and Kashmir goat. **Manufactures.**—Native manufactures of fine textiles—chiefly silks, muslins, shawls, and rugs—and metal wares important. **Forests.**—Dense forests still cover large districts; area, 81,189,511 acres. South of the conifer forests of the Himalayas are extensive tracts of bamboo and sal; teak forests cover eastern slopes of the Ghauts. Timber of northwest mostly deodar. Sandalwood, ironwood, sissu satinwood, numerous palms (cocoanut, date, sago, and areca), banyan, and acacia trees found in various localities. **Minerals.**—Coal, iron, and salt abundant; gold, copper, silver, lead, antimony, tin, cobalt, and gems found; saltpeter and petroleum also obtained. **Commerce.**—Chief imports, yarns, textiles, etc., metals, and metal wares, provisions; exports, rice, jute, tea, coffee, spices, indigo, cotton, opium.

CEYLON.—An island, separated from India by the shallow Palk Strait, and rising from a broad coast-belt to 8,296 feet.
Area, 25,481 sq. m. Surface of interior and south mountainous, surrounded by lowland plain; highest altitude 8,300 feet.
Climate warm and uniform; unhealthful on coast.
Population, 4,504,283. Colombo, on western coast, capital and chief seaport; population, 244,100 Kandy, 32,000, Galle, 39,000.

CEYLON
History.—Island settled by Portuguese 1505; conquered by Dutch about 1658; became a British possession 1795; separate colony 1798; fell under British rule 1815.
Government.—A crown Colony of Great Britain.
Religion, Buddhism predominant. Government supports about one-third of the **schools.** There is a technical college, agricultural school, school of forestry, and industrial schools.

CEYLON.—
Agriculture employs 66 per cent of the population. There are 2,773,657 acres under cultivation. Cocoanuts, rice and other grains, tea, cocoa, coffee, cinchona cinnamon, and tobacco largely grown **Live stock** consists of horses, cattle, goats. Exports, principal articles, rice and other grain, cotton goods, and coal. **Minerals** include plumbago and precious stones.

BRITISH COLONIES

Burma, a Province, including Arakan, and Tenasserim, is drained by the Irrawaddy and Salween, and extends eastward to Tibet, Yun-nan, Tong-king, and the Upper Mekong.
Area. 236.734 sq. m., population, 13,205,564 (91 p. c. are Buddhists. The area within British borders occupied by Shans, Lushai, Kakhyen, and other tribes, not included above amounts to 25,750 sq. m. with a population of 520,000.
Chief Towns, Mandalay, 147,429, Rangoon, 339,527; Maulmain, 55,785.
Andaman Islands, a chain of hilly islands (2,720 ft.) well wooded. Area, 2,500 sq. m., population, 18,340, of whom 12,877 at the penal settlement of Port Blair.
Nicobar Islands, a group of islands to the south of the former. Area, 624 sq. m. Population, 6,310. Chief products, cocoa-nuts.
The Straits Settlements, a Crown Colony, include detached territories, viz. — Penang Island, with Wellesley, the Dindings Malacca and Singapore. Total area, 1,472 sq. m., population, 881,930, including 128,849 Chinese, 348,422 Malays, 226,821 Indians, 12,488 Europeans. Staple exports: Tin, spices, gambier, gums.
The Cocos or Keeling Islands (8 sq. m., population 611), and **Christmas Island** (39 sq m., population 22), in the Indian Ocean, are dependencies. They export the products of the coco palm.
Protected Malay States. — These are Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan, Pahang, Johor, and since 1909, the former Siamese States of Kelantan, Trenganu and Keda. Area about 48,000 sq. m., east. population, 1,733,000, including thousands of Chinese and a small number of aborigines. Trade chiefly through Singapore. Staple export; tin.

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
JAPAN **Area.**—Five large and numerous small islands, together with Chosen (Korea), the southern half of Sakhalin, and Kwantung (leased), form the empire of Japan. Area,	**JAPAN—** **History.**—An island empire of Asia. Founded, according to Japanese history, 660 B. C. Authentic history dates from 500 A. D. Authority of Mikado usurped by	**JAPAN—** **Agriculture** the chief industry. Principal food crops; Rice and other cereals, tea, sugar, wheat, barley, rye. Tea grown chiefly in the south of Nippon. Lacquer tree,

ASIA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
excluding Chosen and Kwantung, about 175,540 sq. m. **Population** of Japan proper, 55,961,140. Population of Taiwan. (Formosa), 3,392,063. **Physical Features.**—Islands all mountainous and largely volcanic. Among the higher mountains several are volcanoes and extend above snow line—Fujiyama, sacred mountain of Japan, the highest (12,425 ft.). Coasts deeply indented and of great extent; length of line, 17,150 miles. Rivers short with rapid fall and abundant water; of great value for irrigation and water power. Volcanic eruptions and earthquake shocks frequent. Hot springs numerous. **Climate** temperate and healthful. Rainfall, abundant. Snowfall, especially west of mountains, enormous. Range of temperature very great. Mean temperature of Tokyo, January, 36.4 deg.; August, 77.6 deg., year, 56.3 deg. Rainfall, 60.4 inches. **Cities.**—Tokyo, capital. Commerce and manufactures important. Yokohama, chief treaty port with large foreign trade. Kyoto, until 1869, for centuries the residences of the Mikado. Osaka, manufacturing and commercial center of Japan; Nagasaki, one of chief commercial cities. **PORT ARTHUR,** naval warport, and **Ta-lien-wan (Dalny),** commercial port. Area, 1,200 sq. m., population, 100,000. Its lease transferred to Japan in 1905. **TAIWAN (FORMOSA).—Area.**—13,458 sq. m. Geysers and sulphur springs numerous. **Cities.**—Tainan, capital and principal seaport; population, 53,794. **Kwantung,** transferred by Russia to Japan, 1905. Controls Pacific terminus of Manchurian Railway, and serves as a gateway to Manchuria for Japanese commerce. Port Arthur and Dairen (Dalny) chief towns. **CHOSEN (Korea).—Area,** 86,000 sq. m. Surface mountainous; greatest elevation 4,500 ft. Chief river, Amnok. **Climate** in summer, though hot, modified by sea; winter cold very severe. **Population,** 13,125,027. Söul, population, 278,958. Ping-Yang, 146,000.	Shogun 1192. Islands visited by Marco Polo in the 13th century. Portuguese merchants and missionaries had access to islands 1543 to 1638. Native Christians persecuted from 1624. Country isolated, except restricted trade with Dutch, until American expedition under Perry, 1853, resulted in signing of commercial treaty, March 31, 1854. Commercial treaties with other countries followed. Revolution of 1868 overthrew power of Shogunate, reëstablishing authority of Mikado. Feudal system abolished 1871. Bonin Islands annexed 1876. Suppression of Satsuma rebellion, 1877. Ryukyu Islands annexed 1879. Constitution promulgated 1889. War with China, 1894-95, resulted, by Treaty of Shimonoseki, Pekin, 1895, in independence of Korea and acquisition by Japan of Taiwan (Formosa) and Pescadores islands. Japanese Sakhalin and lease of Kwantung ceded by Russia, 1905. Korea, now Chosen, annexed to Japan, 1910. **Government.**—A constitutional monarchy with an Emperor, an Advisory Cabinet, Privy Council, and an Imperial Diet of two Houses. Imperial Diet controls finances and administration of justice. **Education.**—Elementary education compulsory. Three universities and 75 normal schools. **Religion.**—Shintoism and Buddhism chief forms; absolute freedom of belief. Roman Catholics, adherents of Greek Church, and Protestants number about 150,000. **TAIWAN** **History.**—First visited by Portuguese, 1590; taken by Dutch, 1642; by Chinese, 1683; ceded to Japan, 1895. **Education.**—An educational system has been established for Japanese and natives, for whom there are elementary schools, normal schools, a medical school, and a school for teaching the Japanese language to natives, and native languages to Japanese. **CHOSEN (KOREA)** **History** of great antiquity; country inhabited in 12th century B. C. Claimed by China from 1122 B. C.; last dynasty (Tsitsien) founded 1392; conquered by Japanese 1592; retaken by Koreans and Chinese 1598; second invasion, treaty relations established 1876. Ports open to other foreigners 1882; Chinese claim renounced and Korea declared independent 1895. Treaty of 1910, Korea was annexed to Japan, and the title changed to "Chosen."	furnishing material for one of the oldest Japanese industries, largely cultivated in north of island. Mulberries furnish one of principal products. Silk production of much importance. Vegetables, oranges, peaches, apricots, grapes, pomegranates, melons, and chestnuts are also grown. Cattle and horses raised. **Manufactures, etc.**—Textile industries rapidly developing. Output of paper, matches, earthenware, manufactures of lacquered ware, matting, and hemp important. Firearms, ordnance, and ammunition used in Imperial army, manufactured at arsenals of Tokyo and Osaka; Maurata rifle invented in Japan. **Minerals.**—Japan has become one of the chief sources of the world's coal supply. Gold, silver, copper, lead, iron pyrites, antimony, manganese, sulphur, and petroleum also mined. Kaolin abundant for ancient and celebrated porcelain industry. **Commerce.**—Chief exports: Silk (raw), cotton, yarn, silk goods, copper, coal, tea, and matches. Chief imports: Raw cotton, oil cake, wool and woolen goods, petroleum, sugar and rice. Commerce chiefly with United States, China, India and Great Britain. **Products.**—Gold, silver, coal, sulphur and petroleum chief mineral products. Other resources include rice, camphor, sugar, tea, sweet potatoes, ramie, jute. Rice crop abundant. Chief exports, camphor and tea. **Agriculture** chief industry; fruits, rice, beans, tobacco, cereals and cotton. **Manufactures** chiefly coarse cotton cloth and paper. Twelve open ports. **Minerals** include gold, iron, coal, and copper.

PERSIA

Area, 628,000 sq. m., divided into thirty-three provinces; length north to south, 700 miles; east to west, 900. **Population,** 9,000,000, of whom only 115,000 are non-Musulmans. The Tajiks are the leading race (nearly 7 millions), besides whom there are Kurds and Lur, Arabs, Mongols and Turkish tribes, and many others.

Physical Features.—Surface an elevated plateau (6,000 to 8,500 ft.) bordered on north, west, and south by lofty mountains. Interior plateau largely an arid, treeless desert. Karun, chief river; Urumiah, largest lake. Maritime plains and mountain slopes clothed with fine forests.

Climate subject to extremes; mountain valleys mild.

PERSIA

History.—Kingdom founded by Cyrus 6th century B. C.; overthrown by Alexander 330; era of Seleucides followed. Parthian supremacy about 250. Second Persian empire 226 A. D.; climax of power 7th century. Conquered by Mohammedan Arabs 641. Came under Seljukes 1038; Kharesmians 1194. Taken by Mongols under Genghis Kahn 1223; ravaged by Timur 1399. Sufi dynasty 1499. Nadir Shah conquered India 1739. Reigning Turkoman dynasty founded 1795. War with England 1856.

Government.—Similar to that of Turkey. Given a National Council in 1906, and a Constitution of limited powers in 1907.

Religion.—About 90 per cent Mohammedans. Other sects in-

PERSIA—

Agricultural and pastoral pursuits chief industries. Valleys and plains of the Karun extremely fertile. In northwest, wheat, barley, maize, tobacco, cotton, tropical nuts and fruits are grown. Rice—largest crop in Caspian provinces—sugar, opium, silk, dyes, and drugs important products. Grapes grown largely for raisins and wine. Wines of Shiraz, Ispahan, and other districts famous. Fruits common to temperate regions produced in profusion. Wool one of most valuable products.

Manufactures include shawls, carpets, dyes, wine, sugar, leather, opium, silks, felts, copper and brass wares, glazed tiles, etc.; mosaic work in bone and ivory, and enameling on metal done in Shiraz.

ASIA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
Chief Towns.—Teheran, 280,000; Tabriz, 200,000; Ispahan, 80,000; Mashhad, 70,000; Balfrush, 50,000.	elude Parsis, Jews, Armenians and Nestorians. **Education.**—Schools have been reorganized on European lines under a Ministry of Education. There are a number of colleges supported by public funds, a polytechnic school, and a political school.	**Commerce** centers largely at Tabriz, Teheran, and Ispahan. Imports chiefly textiles, sugar, tea, petroleum.
TURKEY IN ASIA Turkey in Asia includes now only the Peninsula of Asia Minor, an extensive plateau which stretches eastward into the Highlands of Armenia (Mount Ararat, 16,900 ft.) and Kurdistan.	**TURKEY IN ASIA—** **Government.**—The country is divided into vilayets under same general government as Turkey in Europe. In 1913 reforms for the Asiatic provinces were drawn up granting General Councils in the vilayets to decide matters of local interest. Courts have been organized, and in order to ensure the strict enforcement of the laws and regulations the Empire has been divided into six sectors over which is an Inspection-General who owes his appointment to the foreign Powers.	
Area. — Asia Minor, 197,711; Armenia and Kurdistan, 71,990. **Population,** 12,000,000;	**Education** is nominally obligatory for children of both sexes. Besides elementary and middle-class schools there are a number of foreign schools conducted by French, English and American missionaries.	**Manufactures** mostly domestic; include saddlery, swords, firearms, leather, coarse linen, woolen and cotton goods, shawls, carpets, wine, silver and gold thread, and laces. **Commerce.**—Chief imports, coal, provisions, clothing, cereals, ironware, oils, etc.; exports, grapes, wine, mohair, barley, cocoons, opium, coffee, madder, valonia, etc. **Minerals** include coal, iron, copper, alum, silver, lead, emery, chrome, and asbestos, and rock salt in Armenia and Asia Minor. Mineral riches practically untouched.
	Religion.—Mohammedanism is the established state religion. The Sultan as Caliph is supreme head. Other religions have a semi-official recognition.	
Climate generally warm and pleasant but varies greatly owing to inequalities of elevation. **Cities.**—Smyrna, chief seaport; commercial center of the Levant; population, 225,000; Erzerum, 40,000, Brussa, 75,000.	manufacturers; 135,000. Beirut, fortified seaport; 185,000. Erzerum, 40,000; Brussa, 75,000; Mosul, 61,000; Manissa, 36,000; Kaisaria, 72,000; Diarbekr, 34,000; Trebizond, 35,000.	
PALESTINE. — Extent. — Palestine, endeared to the Christian world as the scene of the labors of Jesus Christ, is at the present time a mere geographical expression. Within its old limits, from "Dan to Beersheba" (150 m.), its area is about 12,000 sq. m.. but including the whole of the Livas of Beirut, Damascus, and the Hauran, it extends over 27,000 sq. m. **Physical Features.**—Four great longitudinal divisions, parallel to the Mediterranean, viz.:—(a) A maritime plain, narrow in the north, but gradually widening to the south of Mount Carmel, of exceeding fertility; (b) a belt of mountains and plateaus, beginning in the north with the Lebanon (10,070 feet), and continued in the limestone hills of Galilee and Judæa; (c) a long valley, including the Bek'aa on the Upper Litani (Leontes), between the Lebanon and the Jebellesh Sharki (Anti-Libanus, 8,724 feet)	**PALESTINE** **Government.**—The Livas of Damascus (with the Hauran) and Beirut, and the independent districts of Jerusalem and Lebanon, the latter since 1861 under a Christian governor. **Race and Language.**—Arabic is the common language, but the constituent elements of the population are most varied. The peasantry is mainly of Aramaic stock, and the Mongols, who ruled in the land before the Exodus, and later immigrants have become merged in it. In the east the Arabs are more or less of pure extraction. The later immigrants include Greeks, Jews, Germans, and numerous other nationalities. **Religion.** — Mohammedanism predominates, but is split up into a number of sects, including the Metawileh (of Persian origin), the Ismailiye, the Anseiriyeh, and the Druses. Among the numerous	**PALESTINE—** **Productions.**—Palestine is still a land of corn, vine, and oil (olive); and in its fertile plains wheat still yields a hundredfold as of yore. Sheep and goats are the commonest domestic animals. Coal is found near Beirut and Saida, amber near Saida, and asphalte near Hasbiya. **Commerce.**—The chief ports are Beirut, Saida (Sidon), Akka (Acre), Haifa, and Yafa (Joppa). Railways connect Yafa with Jerusalem, Beirut with Damascus, and Haifa with the railway now being built from Damascus to Mecca. The exports include wheat, raisins, apricots, oranges and lemons, oil, sesame, tobacco, raw silk, and wool.

ASIA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
and Jebel esh Sheikh (Hermon, 9,150 feet), and the Ghor ("Depression") of the Jordan, ending in the Dead Sea (1,292 feet below sea-level); (d) a plateau region to the east of the Jordan, upon which rises the volcanic Jebel Hauran (5,910) feet) and which merges gradually into the desert. **Climate.**—Jerusalem, 2,440 feet above the sea; mean temperature 63 deg. (February 47 deg., August 76 deg.); rainfall 22 inches. Beirut, mean temperature 69 deg. (January 55 deg., August 82 deg.); rainfall 36 inches. Snow falls not infrequently at Jerusalem, and remains for months on Mount Hermon. The rains fall from the end of October to the beginning of May.	Christian sects the Maronites, chiefly in the Lebanon, form an interesting element. **Towns.** — Damascus, 150,000; Beirut, 105,000; Jerusalem 41,-335; Jaffa, 20,000. **Samos.**—Island principality off the cost of Asia Minor, under sovereignty of Turkey. Important center of Greek commerce, civilization, and art, 6th century B. C. **Area,** 180 sq. m. Surface mountainous; valleys extremely fertile. **Climate** dry and bracing. Products, wine, olive oil, grapes, and hides. Rich **mines** and quarries exist. **Population,** 53,400 Greek Christians. Vathy, capital.	
ARABIA most westerly of the three great peninsulas of Asia. Surface largely a table land; average elevation, 3,500 feet; highest elevations in mountains of Oman in southeast (9,900 feet) and Mt. Sinai (8,535 feet) in northwest. **Climate** one of driest in the world. **Cities.**—Jeddah in El Hejaz on Red Sea, population about 30,-000; Maskat, in Oman, population 24,000, key to Persian Gulf; Aden, controlled by British, key to Red Sea; Hodeidah, on Red Sea, port of Sana; latter largest town in Yemen, center of great coffee district. Within the Turkish province of El Hejaz lie the holy cities of the Mohammedans: Mecca the birthplace and Medina the burial place of the prophet.		**ARABIA—** **Agricultural** methods rude. Most fertile tracts in southwest in Yemen. Products include dates, cereals, bananas, tamarinds, and in southwest coffee, sugar, cotton, spices, drugs, gums, and resins. Interior plateau of the Nejd famous for its horses and camels. **Manufactures** consist of hair tent-covers and bags and coarse linen and woolen fabrics woven by Bedouin women. Has large trade by caravan and sea from surrounding country. **Minerals** include silver, lead, iron, sulphur, and precious stones.

BHUTAN, an independent State in the East Himalaya, nominally under the rule of an incarnation of Buddha, but practically a military oligarchy. **History.**—Original inhabitants, Tephus, conquered by colonists from Tibet, 17th century. Outrages on British subjects led to invasion by England, 1864, and annexation of tracts with passes to hills. **Area,** 20,000 sq. m. Country lies within the Himalayas; **forests** extensive. Rice, Indian corn, millet, musk, and silk chief products. Native ponies noted for superior strength; large numbers raised. **Manufactures** coarse cotton and woolen cloths, buffalo leather, guns, and fine steel swords. Trade small, exports, wool, musk, caoutchouc, and ponies. **Population,** estimated 250,000. Buddhism—of corrupt form—prevailing **religion.** Punakha, capital.

NEPAL, an independent State on the southern slope of the Himalayas, tributary to China since 1791. **Area,** 54,000 sq. m. Kingdom lies within the Himalayas. Surface comprises highland region (10,000 to 16,000 feet), Nepal Valley (4,000 to 10,000) and southern lowlands sloping to Indian plain. **Forests** rich in valuable woods. **Climate** ranges from arctic through temperate to tropical. **Agriculture** widely pursued. Rice staple culture and chief food plant; wheat, barley, ginger, sugar cane, potatoes, tobacco, also grown. Fruit abundant; orange, citron, peach, cherry, etc., cultivated. Domestic animals, horses, dogs, shawl-goats, and sheep. Chief imports: Cattle, etc., salt, petroleum, leather and metal wares, cotton goods; exports, drugs, resins, dyes, jute, oil seeds, spices, timber, saltpeter, etc. **Minerals,** iron, copper, sulphur, jasper, marble, and rock salt. **Population** estimated 5,000,000; Ghurkas dominant race. **Religion,** Buddhism. Khatmandu, capital.

SIAM.—

History.—Siamese settled in upper valleys of Menam middle of 7th century; Ayuthia established 1350; trade with Europe opened 16th century. French protectorate over Cambodia acknowledged 1867. Total **area** of Siam 195,000 sq. m. **Forests** in north include teak, rosewood, ebony, cedar, sapan, ironwood, resinous shrubs, and wild indigo; on coasts, mangroves, banyan, pandanus, areca, cocoanut, and other palms and rattans abound. **Climate** hot but not unhealthful. Rice leading **agricultural** product; staple article of food and chief export; other products, pepper, salt, dried fish, cattle, and sesame. Coffee, cotton, hemp, and tobacco grown. Fruits abundant. Silk, cotton cloths, shoes, gold and silver work, paper, tiles, jars, mats, arrack, and sugar made. **Minerals** gold, tin, iron, coal, silver, petroleum, and gems. **Population** (estimated), 9,121,000. Bangkok, capital and only important seaport; chief manufacturing center; population, 628,675. **Education** chiefly in hands of Buddhist priests, under an English inspector. Teachers' Normal College established, 1892. Siamese official language. Buddhism predominant **religion.**

FRENCH INDO-CHINA.—History.—French intervention began in Indo-China in 1787. Possessions now comprise the colonies of Cochin-China (acquired 1862), Tongking (annexed 1884), and the protectorates of Annam (acknowledged 1884) and Cambodia (1863), together with the Laos territory ceded 1893 and 1896. Total **area,** 256,000 sq. m. Annam in great part mountainous and heavily wooded; Cambodia and Cochin-China mainly vast alluvial plains; deltas of Tongking and Cochin-China wide, fertile districts densely populated. Mekong chief river. **Climate** governed by monsoon winds; wet and dry seasons alternate. Rich in **agricultural** resources. Sugar, cotton, tobacco, rice, and spices, principal products of alluvial districts; maize, other cereals, coffee, manioc, betal nut, and fruits also grown. Bamboo, excellent timber, india rubber, copra, and dye and medicinal plants produced. Exports: Largely rice, fish, salt, sugar, and spices. **Minerals** include gold, silver, tin, lead, and copper, coal and salt. **Population,** 16,-16,990,229; chiefly Mongols and Malays. Saigon, chief seaport, capital of Cochin-China, and also of French Indo-China; population, 72,000; Pnom Penh, capital of Cambodia; 54,628; Hanoi, capital of Tongking. 109,500: Hue, capital city of Annam; 65,000. Buddhism prevails; Christians said to number 830,000. **Government** administered by a Governor-General through a Lieutenant-Governor and Residents General.

AFRICA

Geographical Facts

Position and Extent. — Attached to Asia by the Isthmus of Suez, separated from Europe by the Mediterranean. Africa extends 4,980 miles from north to south (Cape Blanco in Tunis to C. Agulhas), and 4,840 miles from west to east (Cape Verde to C. Guardafui).

Area, including Madagascar and other islands, approximately 12,000 000 sq. m. Length north and south, 4,980 miles; east and west, 4,840 miles.

Population (estimated), 131,097,000, or 12 to a sq. m.

Physical Features.—Nearly all Africa is a plateau. There are no extensive lowlands, but a few localities are depressed below the level of the sea (Shot Melrir, Siwah, Fayum) The mean elevation is 1,975 feet. The Atlas Mountains form a distinct Highland region (Ayashin, 14,150 feet). In the Abyssinian Highlands Ras Dashan rises 15,200 feet, but the loftiest summits of all Africa are found in the East African Lake region Kilimanjaro, 19,270 feet; Kenia, 17,180 feet; Ruwenzori, 16,815 feet).

Hydrography.—Among the rivers the Nile is the most famous, but the Congo has the largest basin. Other rivers are the Niger, the Zambesi, and the Orange River. Among the continental basins (having no drainage to the sea), those of Lake Tsad, Lake Ngami, Lake Rudolf and the Hawash, are the most considerable. The largest lakes are the Victoria Nyanza (28,100 sq. m.), Tsad (8,000 sq. m.), Tanganyika (12,630 sq. m.), Nyassa (10,500 sq. m.), and Rudolf (3,950 sq. m.)

Climate. — Only one-fifth of Africa lies within the temperate zones. At the sea-level a mean temperature of less than 68 deg. is experienced only in Barbary and in the coast-region of South Africa from Durban to Mossameses. The Mediterranean coasts and a portion of Cape Colony have winter rains, while the greater part of the continent has tropical rains. Two extensive regions — viz., the Sahara, in the north, and the Kalahari with adjoining districts, in the south, are almost rainless.

ABYSSINIA

An ancient Christian kingdom, is in the main a country of lofty plateaus, intersected by deep valleys, and surmounted by lofty mountains (Ras Dashan, 15,200 feet.) The Blue Nile rises in Lake Tasna (5,760 feet).

Climate.—Three zones, viz., Kola (the hot lowlands); Voina Deka (the "Land of the Vine"), 5,000—7,900 feet; and the Deka, or High Plateau. Gondar (6,300 feet), mean temperature 67 deg., rainfall 34 inches.

Area, including dependencies, etc., 432,432 sq. m., with valuable trees.

Population, 8,000,000 chiefly Ethiopians. Harar, fortified Galla town, 50,000. Adis Abeba, capital of Abyssinia, 45,000.

Political and Social Facts

History.—Continent, with exception of Egypt and northern coast, known to ancients as Lybia. Egypt—peopled from Asia—seat of earliest civilization; date of first dynasty and founding of Memphis variously estimated as 5004 and 4400 B. C.; conquest by Assyrians 7th century. In 3d century Carthage disputed empire of the world with Rome. Saracens conquered Northern Africa 637-709 A. D. Vasco da Gama doubled Cape of Good Hope and explored coast 1497. South Africa colonized by Dutch 1652. Bruce discovered source of Blue Nile 1772; Livingston made explorations in southeastern and central Africa from 1840 to 1873; Stanley in 1871, '74, '79, '87.

Political.—With exception of the sultanate of Morocco, the kingdom of Abyssinia, and the republic of Liberia, the African continent is divided, politically, among European powers.

Races.—1. Negroes, 87,517,000, classed into Sudan Negroes, Bantu, and the scattered tribes of Pygmies among them. 2. Hamites, 10,964,000—viz., Berbers and Tuareg, in Barbary and the Sahara; Copts, Beja, and Nuba, in the Nile Valley; Agua, etc., in Abyssinia; Danakil, Somal, and Galla, in East Africa. 3. Semites, 26,044,000, including Arabs and Abyssinians, both much mixed with Berber and Negro blood. 4. Hottentots and Bushmen, 420,000 in South Africa. 5. Malays, principally in Madagascar, 2,516,000. 6. Europeans, 3,145,000, of whom 961,000 are in Continental North Africa, 1,115,000 in South Africa, and only 61,000 in tropical Africa. 7. Hindus and other Asiatics, as laborers in the Mascarenhas, 401,000; Turks, in Egypt, etc.

Religion. — Mohammedanism, introduced by Arabs, prevails in north and east and in certain Soudan States; adherents, 60,061,000. Orthodox Christians confined to European settlements in south and north; corrupted form of Christianity survives among Copts of Egypt and Abyssinians; total, 6,208,000. Jews number 258,000; Buddhists, 335,000; Pagans, comprising natives of Central and South Africa, 70,078,000.

ABYSSINIA—

History.—Visited by Portuguese 1492; the various small monarchies united in one kingdom 1855; overthrown by British 1868; Italian protectorate declared 1889; independence recognized 1896.

Education restricted to teachings of secular and regular clergy. Abyssinians mostly members of Alexandrian Church.

Government a feudal monarchy under an emperor.

Natural Resources

Vegetation, etc.—Fertile regions of north characterized by evergreen, oak, pine, cypress, and cork tree; cereals and semi-tropical fruits are grown. Date palm abundant; fruit constitutes chief food of natives; deleb and doum palms found farther south. Fertile oases of Sahara abound in groves of palm and olive. Among cultivated and indigenous plants of Nile valley are papyrus, cotton, lotus, wheat, rice, etc. Vegetation of Abyssinia resembles that of Southern Europe; coffee plant native here. Principal wooded area—estimated by Stanley 321,057 sq. m.—lies between Kongo and great lakes; dense forests of this region contain trees of extraordinary height. Valuable products of western and tropical Africa are coffee, gum, copal, banana, peanut, monkey-bread tree, tamarind and custard apple.

Minerals.—Except in South Africa, the coast regions, and extreme north, mineralogy of continent little known. Gold fields of the Transvaal richest known; furnish one-third of world's product; most valuable diamond mines in the world in South Africa. Iron, coal, copper, and lead occur in Cape Colony and Natal, and excellent iron ores are found in Algeria. Salt is a valuable product.

Industry and Commerce

ABYSSINIA

Agriculture. — Cotton, sugar cane, vine, and date palm flourish in many districts; little land under cultivation. Chief products, cereals, coffee, cotton, "tef," sugar cane, hops, fruit. Pastoral interests dominate; large herds of cattle, sheep, and goats raised; excellent horses and long-wooled sheep in higher elevations.

Manufactures primitive; some cloth, and working of leather and metals, etc. Caravan trade important; hides, skins, ivory, wax, gum, coffee, gold, ostrich feathers, etc., exchanged for manufactured articles.

Minerals include sulphur, rock salt, gold, silver, antimony, and iron.

AFRICA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
LIBERIA **Area,** 40,000 sq. m. Coast lands generally low and sandy; interior hills and mountains covered with beautiful forests, diversified by well-watered, fertile valleys; largest rivers St. Johns and St. Pauls. **Climate** Unhealthful, seasons wet and dry; hottest month January; heat mitigated by almost constant land and sea breezes. **Population,** 1,500,000 to 2,100,000. Monrovia, capital; population, including Krootown, 8 000.	**LIBERIA—** **History.**—Country settled 1822 by free negroes, sent out under American Colonization Society; declared independent, 1847. **Government.**—Republic with executive legislative and judicial departments modeled after the United States. **Religion and Education.**—The Americo-Liberians are all Protestant (Anglican, Presbyterian, Baptist, or Methodist). There are several American missions at work and one French Roman Catholic. The government educational system is supplemented by mission schools, instruction being given both to American and to native negroes.	**LIBERIA** **Agriculture.**—Coffee—renowned for its excellence—and ginger, chief products. Maize, rice, cotton, arrowroot, sugar cane, cereals, and vegetables readily produced. Fruits abundant and finely flavored. Exports: Leading articles, coffee, palm oil and palm kernels, rubber, cocoa, sugar, arrowroot, ivory, hides, and piassava; imports, textiles, clothing, provisions, hardware, tobacco, furniture, etc.
MOROCCO **Area,** estimated at 219,000 sq. m.; southern frontier toward Sahara unsettled. Country comprises a "Tell" or fertile region opening upon the Atlantic an elevated region beyond traversed by ranges of Atlas Mountains (Ayashiu 14,150 feet), and the eastern or desert region of Sahara. Coast district intersected by numerous short rivers, Muluya largest. **Climate** warm and generally healthful. Northwest has sufficient rain from October to March; droughts not uncommon in southwest. **Cities.**—Fez, northern capital; leading commercial city; population 62,693. Morocco, southern capital, has manufactures of morocco leather; 102,107. Tangier, seaport and chief center.	**MOROCCO—** **History.**—The Mauritania of the ancients; conquered by the Arabs about 700. Present dynasty, Scheriffs, pretended descendants of Mohammed, established 1516. Most flourishing period of country 1579-1603. Slavery of Christians abolished 1814; piracy prohibited 1817. **Government.** — An absolute despotism. Morocco is now virtually a French Protectorate. **Population,** 7,023,000, mostly Berbers and descendants of Arabs.	**MOROCCO—** **Agriculture.** — Soil of coast region and mountain valleys fertile; yields abundantly under rudest cultivation. Products wheat, barley, Indian corn, hemp, henna, and tropical and subtropical fruits; dates a regular crop in south. Wealth of Arabs consists of cattle, horses, sheep, and ostriches. **Manufactures** comprise carpets, fezzes, leather, woolens, silks, jewelry, saddlery, earthenware, etc. **Mineral** deposits — undeveloped — include iron, gold, silver, manganese, antimony, lead, etc.; fine amethysts found.
EGYPT **Area and Physical Features.**—400,000 sq. m. Great natural features are River Nile and desert. The Nile has its source in Victoria Nyanza; by its annual inundation and deposit of loam is great fertilizer of Egypt. Suez Canal, 87 miles long, connects Mediterranean with Red Sea. **Population,** 11,139,978; 537,631 nomadic. Nile Valley and delta most densely peopled. Copts descendants of ancient Egyptians dwell chiefly in Upper Egypt. Arabic language spoken. **Climate** of Upper Egypt Continuously hot and dry; farther north hot season is April-November; temperate, December - March. Rainfall scanty, except in delta. **Cities.**—Cairo, capital, on Nile; founded by Saracens, 970; contains museum of antiquities, mosques; population, 1907, 654,476. Alexandria, founded 332 B. C., commercial center and chief-seaport; 332,246. Port Said, at mouth of Suez Canal, 49,884. **Anglo-Egyptian Soudan** extends from Egyptian frontier to Uganda and Belgian Congo and from Red Sea to confines of Wadai. **Area** about 984,520 sq. m. **Population,** 2,600,000. Chief towns: Khartum, 53,520; Omdurman, capital, formerly Dervish capital, 42,779; Wady Halfa, Convention of 1899 provides for Governor-General appointed by Egypt with consent of Great Britain.	**EGYPT—** **History.**—One of the earliest seats of civilization; renowned alike for its great antiquity and former splendor. Modern history begins with conquest by Mohammedans, 638 A. D.; taken by Mamelukes, 1250; became Turkish province, 1517. Invaded by Napoleon, 1798; restored to Turkey, 1801. New era began with Mehemet Ali, founder of present dynasty; reigned, 1805-49. Suez Canal opened, 1869. Native revolt under Arabi Pasha, 1881, suppressed by British; English financial adviser appointed. Mahdists in Soudan revolted 1881-85; conquered, 1899. Egypt was proclaimed an independent kingdom under British protection in 1922. **Religion,** Mohammedanism dominant. Moslems number 10,400,000; Christians, Copts, 700,000; Jews, 40,000. Supreme religious and judicial authority vested in Sheikh ul Islam.	**EGYPT—** **Agriculture.**—Vast reservoir for flood waters of Nile at Assuan; irrigated area constantly increasing. Perennial irrigation assures two or three crops annually: in winter, cereals; summer, cotton, sugar, and rice; autumn, rice, maize, and vegetables. Chief products: Wheat, maize, cotton, beans. Date most important fruit; fig, orange, lemon, and olive plantations exist. Domestic **animals,** including dromedary, horse, donkey, camel, sheep, and ox. **Manufactures** chiefly cotton, linen, and woolen textiles, leather, coarse pottery, glassware, embroideries, and cigarettes. **Mineral** resources limited. Quarries comprise granite, syenites, porphyry, marble, alabaster, limestone, and sandstone.

AFRICA—Continued

Geographical Facts

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

Comprises the Provinces of **Cape of Good Hope** (formerly Cape Colony), **Natal, Transvaal,** and **Orange Free State** (Orange River Colony).

Physical Features.—The country rises in terraces to the pastoral upland region of the interior. The loftiest mountain is the Compass Berg, 8,900 feet. **Area** including dependencies, 276,995 sq. m. chief rivers Orange and Olifants. Coast line, 1,225 miles, contains few harbors

Climate generally healthful, dry and temperate. Karroo plateau and Orange River plains subject to droughts. Rain falls in eastern districts in summer, in western in winter.

Population, including dependencies, 6,926,992, of whom 1,522,442 are white. Cape Town, capital, seaport, and railway terminus; population, 1921, 206,558. Kimberley, diamond mining center, 60,000. Port Elizabeth, seaport, 45,927.

NATAL.—The Colony, including Zululand, etc., extends from the Indian Ocean to the summit of the Drakenberg, and thus enjoys a variety of climate. Colony well watered; Tugela principal river. **Climate** in general pleasant and healthful; coast subtropical; interior cooler.

Area, 35,284.

Population, 2,561,841. Pietermaritzburg, capital, 58,411. Durban, leading port and railway terminus, 140,324.

TRANSVAAL.—A British Colony, formerly known as the South African Republic. Area (including Swaziland) 117,732 sq. m. Chief rivers, Limpopo and Vaal. **Forests** confined chiefly to river courses and mountain gorges. **Climate** generally healthful. **Population,** 2,091,408. Pretoria, capital; 73,770. Johannesburg, founded 1886, largest and most important town; mining center of Witwatersrand gold fields; population 284,191.

ORANGE FREE STATE.—A Boer Republic from 1854-1900, now a British Colony. **Area,** 50,392 sq. m., population, 387,315, including 143,420 whites. **Climate** temperate and healthful.

Political and Social Facts

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

History.—By the South Africa Act 1909, the Cape Colony, Natal, Transvaal, and the Orange River Colony are united to form the Union of South Africa. Discovered by Portuguese 1487; colonized by Dutch, 1650-52; immigration of Huguenots, 1686; occupied by British, 1796, and again 1806; finally ceded to Great Britain 1815; representative government obtained 1853; responsible government 1872; Zulu war 1879.

Government.—Governor appointed by Crown, responsible Ministry and Legislature of two Houses, both elective.

Education.—In 1904, white children received instruction in some form, and also native children. Aided schools, 4,111, 1 university and 4 colleges.

Religion.—Dutch Reformed, leading church. Methodist, Episcopalian, and Presbyterian churches.

NATAL

History.—Discovered by Portuguese 1497; Dutch settlements 1719-21; British 1824; Boer immigration (Pietermaritzburg founded) 1837; became a separate crown colony 1856; became an original province of the Union of South Africa 1910.

Government. — Governor, responsible Ministers, and two Legislative Houses.

Education.—Schools are provided for both European and native children.

TRANSVAAL

History.—Country colonized by Boers who left the Cape Colony 1835. Independence recognized 1852. Country annexed by Great Britain 1877. Revolted 1880-81 and self-government restored under suzerainty of Great Britain; in 1884 British control restricted to foreign affairs. War declared against Great Britain, October, 1899; Boers defeated and country annexed by the British in 1902; became an original province of Union of South Africa, 1909.

Education.—School enrollment, 54,494. Dutch Reformed, Anglican, and Lutheran principal religious denominations.

ORANGE FREE STATE

History.—First settled by Boers who emigrated from the Cape Colony in 1836 and following years. Annexed by Great Britain 1848; independence declared, constitution proclaimed 1854. War with Great Britain 1899-1902 resulted disastrously to the Republic and the country was annexed by Great Britain, became an original province of Union of South Africa 1910.

Industry and Commerce

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA—

Agriculture.—Leading products: Wheat, oats, barley, mealies, kaffir corn, rye, tobacco. Vine, extensively cultivated.

Live Stock industry one of the two leading sources of wealth; sheep farming ranks first; farms often comprise 3,000 to 15,000 acres. Ostrich farming also successful.

Manufactories limited to flour mills, breweries, tanneries, tobacco factories, etc.

Commerce largely with United Kingdom. Imports, chiefly textiles, clothing, and provisions; exports, raw gold, diamonds, wool, Angora hair, ostrich feathers.

Minerals of vast importance. Diamond output 2,500,000 carats annually; value, $25,000,000; first discovered 1867; copper output, value $2,000,000. Coal, asbestos, salt, tin, and gold are produced.

NATAL

Agriculture.—Soil of great fertility. Area cultivated: 450,000 acres by Europeans. 500,000 by natives; leading crops, maize, sugar, tea, and wattle bark. Pastoral pursuits important. **Live stock:** Cattle, goats, sheep, horses, pigs. Colony rich in minerals, chiefly coal, also asbestos, fireclay, gold, graphite.

TRANSVAAL

Agriculture.—Country adapted to **agriculture** and grazing. Chief industry raising of **live stock.**

Manufactures include products of iron foundries, breweries, flour mills, brick and tile works, etc. Exports include gold, diamonds, wool, cattle, hides, ostrich feathers, ivory, etc.

Richest **mineral** section of South Africa; gold leads in importance; most productive field Witwatersrand. Value of diamond output, $6,500,000. Silver, copper, lead, tin, and lime produced in quantity; cobalt, iron, zinc, bismuth, platinum, cinnabar exist.

ORANGE FREE STATE

Agriculture.—Colony consists of undulating plains, excellent for grazing, and wide tracts for agriculture. Live stock, chiefly sheep, cattle, and horses. **Commerce** conducted through ports of the Cape Colony and Natal; imports: Chiefly cereals, clothing, wood, hardware, and merchandise.

FRENCH POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA

ALGERIA.—History.—Original inhabitants Numidians or Berbers, conquered by Romans and Vandals. Turkish possession 1519 to 1710. Piratical power 16th to 19th centuries; defeated by United States 1815. Algiers taken by France 1815; Constantine, 1837; Kabyles subdued and Abd-el-Kader captured 1847.

Area, 343,500 sq. m.; divided into two great divisions, Northern and Southern Algeria. Algeria presents four distinct regions: The mountainous but fertile coastal territory extending inland from the Mediterranean (Tell); the plateau of the Shats; the Great Atlas Mountains; and the Algerian Sahara extending indefinitely to the south; the latter a vast region of oasis, each with numerous towns and villages

FRENCH POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA—Continued

surrounded by groves of date-palm, fig, and olive. Chief rivers Sheliff and Seybuse.

Climate on northern mountain slopes equable; marshy plains unhealthful. Winters mild, rain abundant.

Forest area 6,559,490 acres; on 645,000 acres are cork-oak trees.

Agriculture chief industry. Agricultural population, 3,322,520—213,756 Europeans. Chief products; wheat, barley (about 3½ million acres in each crop), oats, maize, potatoes, beans, flax, and tobacco cultivated. Vine thrives; other products: Orange, date, mandarin, citron, banana, pomegranate, almond, fig; olive oil is an important industry.

Live Stock includes horses, mules, asses, camels, cattle, sheep, goats, and pigs.

Fisheries extensive; 1908, 5,172 persons employed.

Minerals valuable; in 1909, 44 mines were worked for iron, zinc, lead, mercury, copper, antimony and petrol.

Population.—5,800,974; natives, 4,979,547; in 1921, French, 556,000; Spaniards, 150,000; Italians, 40,000; other foreigners, 85,000.

Algiers, capital, leading seaport and most important coaling station in the Mediterranean, 206,595; Oran, 141,156; Constantine, 78,220.

Primary and infant **schools,** and other institutions for higher instruction at Algiers, Tlemcen, and Constantine. Natives Mohammedans.

Territory governed as detached part of France through Governor-General.

TUNIS.—History.—Invaded by French 1270; by Spanish, 1535; became a Turkish province 1575; ruled by beys and long noted as a piratical State. Occupied by France 1881. Now a French Protectorate.

Area, 51,000 sq. m.

Physical Features similar to those of Algeria. Atlas ranges separated by wide, fertile basin of Mejerda, chief river. Valleys well watered; cork forests important. Numerous rich, well populated oases.

Climate generally healthful; thermometer rarely rises to 92 deg.

Agriculture leading industry; cereals, fruits, olives, nuts, and the vine cultivated. Olive trees, 11,428,660; date trees, 1,350,000; wine product, 6,500,000 gallons.

Live Stock, 1908, horses, 28,772; cattle, 159,272; sheep, 587,027; goats, 342,249; camels, 106,175.

Fisheries important.

Manufactures chiefly wool fabrics, caps, soap, and leather.

Minerals include zinc, iron, lead, copper, silver, salt, phosphate, and fine marbles.

Population, 2,093,939, mostly Bedouin Arabs and Kabyles. Tunis, capital and seaport, has important textile manufactures; population, 180,351. Mohammedanism prevails.

Government, nominally in hands of native Bey, actually carried on by French Resident-General.

SENEGAL colony consists of four municipal communes of St. Louis, the capital of the colony (population, 23,326); Dakar, a fortified naval station and seat of Government General of French West Africa (population, 25,468); Rufisque and Goree, area 438 sq. m.; territory of direct administration, area 74,112 sq. m.; population, 1,225,523.

Industry, weaving, pottery, brick making, and jewelry. Chief imports, cottons, foodstuffs, metalwork, coal; exports, oil-seeds and rubber.

Government administered by Governor-General and Colonial Council.

FRENCH GUINEA detached from Senegal 1890 and first known as Rivieres du Sud Colony. Coast territory extends inland between Sierra Leone and Portuguese Guinea.

Climate hot and unhealthful.

Population, 1,851,200. Konakry, Isle of Tombo, capital.

IVORY COAST.—Annexed by France 1892-3. Colony extends inland between Liberia and British Gold Coast, embracing Kong and other States on northeast.

Area, 130,000 sq. m.; population 1,545,680.

Climate moist and hot. Products include valuable woods, gold, india rubber, cotton, and pineapples.

Commerce increasing.

DAHOMEY stretches inland between Togoland and British Lagos; and northward to the French Military Territories.

Area of coast, about 70 miles, but opens northward into a wide hinterland.

Inhabitants engaged in **agriculture;** chief products palm oil, Indian corn, cattle, ivory.

Population, 860,590. Capital, Porto Novo, chief business center with 20,000 inhabitants.

MAURETANIA, formed into a protectorate in 1909, with an area of 344,967 sq. m.; population, 261,746, and consists of five districts, Trarza, Brakna, Gorgol, Guidimaka and Tagant.

FRENCH SUDAN extends between Ivory Coast on the south and Algerian sphere on the north.

Area, 617,600 sq. m.; population, 2,474,589.

Industries comprise pottery, brick making, jewelry, weaving, leather making. Chief exports ground nuts, cattle, rubber, skins, and wool.

Government is under civil administration.

FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA.—History.—First trading post on Gabun established by French 1842; authority extended to Cape Lopez and Ogowe River 1862; interior between Ogowe and Kongo explored by de Brazza 1878-80, large tract of country annexed; French claims recognized by Berlin Conference 1885. Region east of Kamerun and north to Lake Tchad conceded to French 1894. Since then growth by exploration and military occupation. In 1906 three autonomous colonies formed: Gabun, Middle Congo, and Ubangi-Shari-Chad.

Area, 1,037,131 sq. m. Country well watered and covered with extensive forests.

Climate generally unhealthful for Europeans. Cotton, tobacco, cinnamon, pepper, gums, resins, and dyewoods produced.

Estimated native **population,** 9,000,000. Libreville, capital of Gabun and seaport. **Schools** for boys and girls.

Civil and military **government** administered by Commissioner-General.

OBOCK AND SOMALI COAST.—Protectorate acquired by France 1864. Situated on Gulf of Aden, surrounded by Eritrea, Abyssinia, and British Somali Land.

Area, 5,790 sq. m.; extends inland about 40 miles. Trade chiefly with interior countries.

Population, 65,000. Chief cities, Obock and Tajurah.

MADAGASCAR.—History.—Island known to the ancients and early Arabs; first described by Marco Polo; re-discovered by Portuguese 1506. France asserted claim over island as early as 1642. Christianity introduced 1810-28. War between French and natives 1882-4, and 1895; resulted in French protectorate; island and its dependencies declared a French colony 1896.

Area, with adjacent islands, 228,500 sq. m.; length 980 miles; breadth 360. Interior generally elevated and mountainous; coast regions and many parts of northern half of island clothed with tropical forests; luxuriance of vegetation almost unrivaled; southern portion usually plateaus, with widely extending savannas. Coasts hot and unhealthful; higher parts of interior more moderate and less trying for Europeans.

Agriculture and cattle breeding chief industries. Rice, sugar cane, coffee, vanilla, manioc, cacao, and sweet potatoes grown.

Domestic **manufactures** include weaving of silk and cotton and textures from raffia palm fiber. Imports, cotton and metal goods, rum, crockery, etc.; principal exports, gold, cattle, hides, tan bark, rubber, sugar, vanilla, rafia fiber, manioc, copal, rice, and seeds.

Minerals include gold, copper, iron, lead, sulphur, graphite and lignite. **Population,** 3,545,264; dominant race Hovas, of Malay origin. Antananarivo, capital population, 63,115. Tamatave, chief seaport; population 15,000.

All forms of **religion** permitted; Protestants estimated to number 450,000, Roman Catholics, 50,000.

Government administered by Governor-General and administrative council.

REUNION, or BOURBON.—Island about 100 miles southwest of Mauritius. French possession

FRENCH POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA—Continued

since 1767. **Area,** 970 sq. m. Of volcanic origin; mountainous (Piton des Neiges 10,070 feet).

Agricultural products, sugar, rum, coffee, cacao, vanilla, and spices.

Live Stock, horses, mules, oxen, sheep and goats.

Population, 173,190. St. Denis, capital; population, 23,972; connected by railway; length 77 miles, with Galle, chief port, and St. Pierre.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA

GOLD COAST.—Danish settlements transferred to England, 1850; Dutch claims, 1872; colonial government established, 1874; Ashantee placed under British protection, 1895-96.

Area, colony, Ashanti and protectorate, 80,000 sq. m. Coast regions level; interior hilly. Soil fertile. Products: Palm oil and kernels, india rubber, kola nuts, and timber. Gold widely distributed.

Population, 2,029,750 (1,700 Europeans). Akra, capital and chief city; 19,585. Cape Coast Castle, 11,364. **Railways,** 168 miles. Telegraph, 1,363 miles.

Education mainly in hands of religious bodies.

GAMBIA.—Territory discovered by Portuguese, 1447; fort established by English, 1686; became British possession, 1783; annexed to Sierra Leone, 1841, independent colony, 1888.

Area, Protectorate 4,500 (colony 4 sq. m.). Products and exports: Groundnuts, hides, beeswax, rice, cotton, corn, and india rubber.

Population, 240,000 (colony 8,000). Bathurst, capital and chief city; population, 6,000.

SIERRA LEONE.—Northwest of Liberia. Unsuccessful attempt made to colonize liberated slaves, 1787; territory annexed by England, 1791; became Crown colony, 1807.

Area, colony and protectorate, 31,624 sq. m. Coast an undulating plain; interior elevated plateaus.

Forests extensive. Soil fertile, rice yielding abundantly in interior; cotton plentiful; indigo practically wild. Exports include palm oil and palm kernels, ginger, ground and kola nuts, tropical fruits, india rubber, copal, and hides. Cocoanut oil produced; workers in gold and silver numerous and skillful.

Population, of total area, 1,372,560. Freetown, capital; most important seaport (fortified) of West Africa; population, 34,090.

NIGERIA bounded on the east by Kamerun, west by Dahomey, and divided into two divisions, Northern and Southern Nigeria. About nine-tenths of the area was formerly within the territories of the Royal Niger Company. In 1884-87 whole of Nigeria was declared to be under British protection; in 1900 was transferred to direct imperial administration.

NORTHERN NIGERIA, area 256,400 sq. m. Products of the low country, palm oil; inland region, rubber, groundnuts, sheabutter, ivory, hides, live stock, ostrich feathers. Cotton growing is carried on; tobacco also grown.

Minerals.—Tin ore is in rich deposits, silver also found. Protestant missionary societies have industrial schools.

Population, 8,500,000.

SOUTHERN NIGERIA comprises the colony and protectorate of Southern Nigeria and Lagos.

Climate not healthy.

Area, 77,260 sq. m.; chief products, palm-oil, cotton, cocoa, coffee, ivory, hides, earthnuts and fruits.

Minerals, manganese ore, tin ore, lignite and monazite.

Population, 7,750,000. Lagos, the capital and important port.

BRITISH SOMALI LAND.—Became a protectorate 1884. Region extends from Lahadu to Ziyada, with an **area** of 68,000 sq. m. Imports chiefly rice, textiles, and dates; exports, skins, hides, ostrich feathers, cattle, sheep, and gum.

Population, 300,000. Mohammedan nomads. Berbera, chief town; 30,000 (in trading season). **Government** administered by Political Agent and Consul.

BRITISH EAST AFRICA comprises main portion of highlands of eastern equatorial Africa. Surface in east slopes gradually to lowlands of coast; west and northwest to valley of Upper Nile. Principal river Nile; Tana and Juba chief rivers entering Indian Ocean. **Has** many interesting lakes; embraces northern half of Victoria Nyanza Politically, district divided among the protectorates of Kenya, Uganda, Zanzibar and the mandate of Tanganyika.

KENYA COLONY includes the coast from Juba River to Tanganyika and inland to Uganda borders. Higher plateaus, clothed with luxuriant grasses, especially adapted to stock raising. Exports: Ivory, india rubber, cattle, goats, grain, copra, gum, copal hides and horns.

Population, 2,630,000; Mombasa, capital and chief city, has a fine harbor; population, 30,000. Lamu and Kismayu, chief ports in the north; Vanga and Takaungu, south.

Protectorate under control of Governor and Commander-in-Chief.

UGANDA PROTECTORATE came under sphere of British influence 1890. Includes Uganda proper, Usoga to the east, and Unyoro and other countries west. Area, 117,681 sq. m.; population, 3,071,608. Soil, fertile. Natives skillful in pottery and working in iron. Entebbe, administrative capital.

ZANZIBAR PROTECTORATE.—Zanzibar an important Mohammedan power under Imans of Maskat 1698-1807; independence confirmed 1861; placed under British protection 1890.

Area, with Pemba, 1,020 sq. m. Surface undulating and well watered; soil fertile, carefully cultivated; chief product cloves.

Population, 197,130—Arabs dominant race—(Pemba, 83,130); British Indian subjects, 10,000 Zanzibar, free port; chief trade center in this region; population, 35,000.

Mohammedanism prevails; Christian missions established. Protectorate governed through a native Sultan.

BASUTOLAND.—Country has been directly under authority of the Crown since 1884.

Area 11,716 sq. m. Surface an elevated plateau broken by high mountains; drained by Orange River.

Climate healthful; winter in elevated districts rigorous. Soil fertile; finest grain country in South Africa; wheat and kaffir corn largely grown. Extensive areas of well watered luxuriant pasture for immense herds; wool an important product. Imports: Blankets, plows, etc. Exports: Stock, grain, wool, etc.

Population, 405,600; European settlement prohibited. Maseru, capital; population 1,700.

ST. HELENA, in South Atlantic about 1,200 miles from west coast of Africa. Discovered by Portuguese 1502; belonged to East India Company 1651 to 1834. Now a British colony. Napoleon I imprisoned here 1815 to 1821.

Area, 47 sq. m. Population, 3,747.

Climate mild and agreeable. Capital, Jamestown.

MAURITIUS.—Island in Indian Ocean, 500 miles east of Madagascar. Discovered by Portuguese, 1505; confirmed as British possession 1814.

Area, 720 sq. m.

Climate unhealthful. Sugar cane, hemp, wheat, maize, yams, and manioc grown. Chief export raw sugar.

Population, 376,108. Spoken language French, official English. Port Louis, capital; population, 39,300.

Government with dependencies, Rodrigues, Diego Garcia, Seychelles Islands, vested in Governor and Executive Council.

NYASALAND PROTECTORATE.—Includes region on south and west shores of Lake Nyasa.

Area, 43,608 sq. m.

Climate in general unfavorable to Europeans. Rice, oats, and barley grown. Culture of coffee, tobacco, tea, and cotton of growing importance. Merino sheep and Natal ponies introduced. Imports, cotton goods, provisions, hardware, etc.; exports, coffee, cotton, tobacco.

Population, 1,199,531. Blantyre, chief town;

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA—Continued

population 6,100. Zomba, seat of administration. Administered by a Governor under Foreign Office.

BECHUANALAND PROTECTORATE comprises the territory lying between the Molopo and Zambezi rivers and extending from the South African Republic and Matabeland west to German Southwest Africa.

Area, 275,000 sq. m.

Climate fine; very dry in west. Natives engaged in **agriculture** and **cattle rearing.** Gold fields near Tati.

Population, 125,350. Serowe, chief town; population 17,000.

Government administered by Resident Commissioner, acting under the High Commissioner.

RHODESIA embraces the territory within the British sphere of influence to the north of Bechuanaland and the Union of South Africa. Divided into Northern and Southern Rhodesia by the Zambezi.

Area of Southern Rhodesia 149,000 sq. m.; Northern Rhodesia, 291,000 sq. m. Soil and **climate** adapted to European cereals and vegetables; subtropical trees and plants successfully grown.

Forests of hardwood timber abound. India rubber, indigo, and cotton indigenous.

Country rich in **minerals;** gold, silver, copper, tin lead, coal, and antimony exist; production of gold to date, about $85,000,000.

Population estimated at 1,735,120. Salisbury, capital of Southern Rhodesia; population 1,800.

Government administered by Resident Commissioner and Executive Council.

FORMER GERMAN POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA

TANGANYIKA TERRITORY, former German possessions in East Africa acquired 1885 to 1890. Sphere of influence embraces a coast line of about 620 miles, stretches south from Kenya Colony to Portuguese possessions and westward to Lakes Nyassa and Tanganyika.

Area, 365,000 sq. m. Coast belt low; interior mountainous, forming wide plateaus with lofty isolated peaks; Kilima-njaro, 19,320 feet, highest. Chief rivers, Rueha and Ruvu. Lake Victoria Nyanza on the north.

Forest of mangroves, coco palms, baobab, tamarind etc., cover coast regions; acacia, cotton tree, sycamore banyan, etc., abound in higher sections.

Large areas adapted to **agriculture.** Chief products: Millet, bananas, sisal, cocoanuts, cloves, castor oil, sugar cane, and vegetables. Natives have large banana plantations, also cultivate Indian corn and pulse. On coast lands German plantations of cacao, coco palms, vanilla, tobacco, and india rubber established; in more elevated districts coffee is grown. Among natives goat most common domestic animal; cattle and sheep also raised. Exports, ivory, sisal, india rubber, coffee.

Minerals known to exist are coal, iron, salt, lead, and copper.

Native **population,** 7,659,898, mostly Bantus, with Asiatic element near coast. Chief seaports: Dar-es-Salaam, 21,000; Bagamoyo, 15,000; Kilwa, 10,000.

Mandatory of Great Britain.

TOGOLAND on Slave Coast between Dahomey and Gold Coast Colony. Declared a German protectorate, 1884. Mandatory of Great Britain and France.

Mandatory of Great Britain.

Area, 33,700 sq. m. Coast low and unhealthful, interior salubrious. Maize, cotton, yams, tapioca, ginger, bananas grown; coffee culture introduced. Forest products, cocoa, palm oil, caoutchouc, dye woods. Exports, palm oil, gum, palm kernels.

Population, 1,000,000. Lome chief town and port.

CAMEROON region extends between British Nigeria and French Equatorial Africa. Region became German protectorate, 1884; in 1911, France ceded over 100,000 sq. m. to Germany, giving colony outlets to Congo Basin.

Area, 291,950 sq. m. Surface of interior high plateaus sloping abruptly to Atlantic coast lands; latter generally low with exception of lofty volcanic peaks of Cameroon (Mongo Ma Loba, 13,000 feet) rising near sea. Rivers unfit for navigation. Lake Tchad on northern boundary.

Products.—Coast regions clothed with luxuriant tropical vegetation, soil of great fertility. Cacao, rubber, kola, coffee, successfully established. Interior plateaus abound in extensive savannas well adapted for raising cattle. Gold and iron found.

Population, 2,540,000; Bantu negroes near coast; Sudan negroes inland. Duala chief town, population, 22,000; Buea, seat of government.

Government and mission **schools** established. 930 miles, exclusive of Walfish Bay.

SOUTHWEST AFRICA.—Region annexed by Germany 1884. Possessions extend along Atlantic coast Mandatory of France and Great Britain.

Area, 322,450 sq. m., divided into Damaraland and Great Namaqualand.

Agriculture limited, soil of southern district and large areas in eastern barren and desert. Farming increasing, by irrigation from artesian wells. Pastoral pursuits chief industry. Natives have large herds of cattle; sheep introduced from the Cape, and native goats also reared. Quantity of diamonds and copper.

Population, 218,000 (whites, 19,237). Mandatory of Union of South Africa. Windhoek, seat of administration. Chief harbors, Swakopmund, Sandwich and Angra Pequena.

Mandatory of Union of South Africa.

ITALIAN POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA

ERITREA.—Colony of Eritrea constituted 1890. Assab occupied 1880, town and island of Massaua 1885. Colony now embraces coast of Red Sea from Ras Kasar to Strait of Bab-el-Mandeb, 670 miles, extending inland about 200 miles.

Area, 45,800 sq. m. Irrigation needed for **agriculture.** Sheep, goats, oxen, and camels raised; meats, hides, and butter produced. Pearl **fisheries** at Massaua and Dahlak Archipelago; industry in hands of Banians (Indians).

Population 402,793, largely nomadic; Europeans, 3,098. Massaua, fortified seaport and important center of commercial exchange. Asmara, present seat of Government.

Government represented by civil governor under Minister of Foreign Affairs.

ITALIAN SOMALI LAND.—Sultanate of Obbia placed under Italian protection, 1889; protectorate extended in 1892 and 1896. By treaty of Adis Abeda, 1896, Italian dominion restricted to strip of coast extending from Ras Alula to mouth of Juba River. Area, 139,430 sq. m. **Population,** 650,000.

PORTUGUESE POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA

EAST AFRICA.—First Portuguese settlements made on west coast 1505; colony formed 1569. Possessions divided into five districts; Mozambique, Lourenco Marques, Inhambane, Quilimane, and Tete.

Area, 428,132 sq. m. Surface of coast low and swampy, gradually rising toward interior, generally covered with **forests.** Chief river Zambezi. Soil fertile.

PORTUGUESE POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA—Continued

Natives largely engaged in **agriculture;** Indian corn grown extensively. Coffee, cotton, and sugar cane thrive. Industrial, commercial, agricultural, and mining operations conducted by Mozambique and Nyasa Companies in Manica, Sofala, and Rovuma regions. Gold, copper, iron, coal exist.

Population, 3,120,000. Mozambique, leading seaport; Lourenco Marques, capital; population, 9,849. Beira, important trading center.

Administered by a Commissioner. Mozambique and Nyasa Companies have royal charters and sovereign rights.

ANGOLA.—Region discovered by Portuguese 1486. Possessions extend from mouth of Kongo to Cunene River, over 1,000 miles; surrounded inland by Belgian Congo, British South Africa, and German Southwest Africa.

Area, 484,800 sq. m. Coast region narrow, arid lowland, succeeded by uplands reaching to mountains bounding an interior plateau. District west of Kongo basin extremely mountainous. Country well watered by numerous rivers. Coast lands unhealthful; **climate** of interior European in character.

Soil fertile; **agriculture** a flourishing pursuit. Oil palm not found below 10 deg. south; coffee grows wild in nearly all hilly districts, chief export from Ambriz; cotton grown in district of Mossamedes, sugar in lowlands; other productions, rubber, wax, vegetable oils, cocoanuts, oxen, fish, and ivory. European domestic animals reared. Malachite, copper, salt, petroleum, and iron found in large quantities; gold also exists.

Population, 2,124,361; white population greater than in any other Central African possession. S. Paulo de Loanda, capital and seaport; population, 20,106. Port Alexander, seat of fish salting industry.

CAPE VERDE ISLANDS discovered and colonized by Portuguese, 1460.

Area, 1,480 sq. m. Islands mountainous.

Climate tropical; mean temperature, 71 deg. Has flourishing cinchona plantations. Other products include coffee, cacao, tobacco, sugar, brandy, palm oil, fruits. Cattle, goats, pigs, numerous.

Manufactures.—Salt, soap, linens, pottery, and leather. Iron and amber in southern islands.

Population, 149,793; of mixed race, descendants of Portuguese settlers and negroes. Capital, Praia. Colony administered by Governor.

PORTUGUESE GUINEA.—On Senegambia coast surrounded on land side by French possessions, includes Bissagos Archipelago and Bolama Island.

Area, 13,940 sq. m. Chief products: India rubber, wax, oil seeds, ivory, and hides.

Population, 289,000. Capital, Bolama.

ST. THOMAS and PRINCE ISLANDS.—St. Thomas (Sao Thomé) discovered by Portuguese, 1470; with Prince Island (Ilha do Principe), its dependent, forms province of Portugal.

Area, 360 sq. m. Volcanic and mountainous (Pico de Sao Thomé, 7,028 feet) with luxuriant vegetation. **Climate** unhealthful; more rain than on mainland. Chief products, coffee, cacao, cinchona; sugar and vanilla also produced.

Population, 63,845; principally Creoles and Negroes. Capital, Cidade de Sao Thomé. Chief town and port (Prince Island) Sao Antonio.

Madeira Islands.—Islands known to ancients; visited by Arabs 12th century; rediscovered and colonized by Portuguese, 1420.

Area, 314 sq. m. Very mountainous (Pico Ruivo, 6,060 feet). Notable health resort for European invalids. Mean temperature, 65 deg.; highest, 85 deg.; lowest, 54 deg. Sugar cane, tobacco, and all tropical and European fruits grown; wines famous.

Population, 150,574. Funchal, capital, 20,844. An administrative district of Portugal.

SPANISH AND BELGIAN POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA

SPANISH POSSESSIONS

CANARY ISLANDS.—Became a Spanish possession, 1493. Administratively part of Spain.

Area of archipelago, 2,808 sq. m. Surface mountainous, diversified by plains and valleys.

Climate equable. Chief products, sugar, cochineal, and wine; other products, tobacco, silk, oil, wheat, barley, and tropical fruits.

Population, 513,959. Capital, Sania Cruz de Teneriffe; chief port, Palmas.

Religion, Roman Catholic.

RIO DE ORO and ADRAR.—Area, 73,000 sq. m.; population, 12,000—under Governorship of Canary Islands with Subgovernor at Rio de Oro.

FERNANDO PO and ANNABON, fertile, mountainous islands in Gulf of Guinea; area, 814 sq. m.

BELGIAN POSSESSIONS

BELGIAN CONGO grew out of the Kongo International Association, founded 1835 by Leopold II, King of Belgians, and organized by Stanley, first Governor-General. Boundaries of State defined by neutrality declarations 1885; State placed under sovereignty of the King, who, 1889, bequeathed his sovereign rights to Belgium. Annexed to Belgium in 1907.

Area, 909,654 sq. m. Kongo River and its many tributaries great natural features of country. Surface rises from low coast lands to an interior elevation of 1,500-1,600 feet. Extensive **forests** in east. **Climate** generally unhealthful, especially in river lowlands.

Agriculture leading industry; tribes along the Kongo and tributaries excellent fishermen and boatmen. Chief products, rubber, ivory, palm nuts, and palm oil; coffee and tobacco thrive. **Commerce** has extended rapidly.

Population, 11,000,000, mostly of Bantu origin, many pygmy tribes. Europeans, 8,221. **Boma,** capital, and port on Kongo River. Banana, seaport on Kongo River; railways in operation, about 500 miles.

Native **religion** fetishism; missions co-operate with government in **educational** matters.

Government.—The King is represented by a Governor-General.

AUSTRALASIA OR OCEANIA

The term "Australasia" is applied to that division of the world which includes the Commonwealth of Australia and the islands of the Pacific (South Sea Islands of Polynesia), of which New Guinea is the largest. French Geographers have introduced the term "Oceania," which also embraces the Malay Archipelago. The South Sea Islands have, moreover, been grouped, on ethnographical rather than geographical grounds, into *Micronesia* (Carolines and Marianas), *Melanesia* (with dark colored inhabitants from New Guinea to the Fiji Islands), and *Polynesia* (New Zealand to the Sandwich Islands). Australasia is here used in its widest sense.

Geographical Facts

AUSTRALIAN COMMONWEALTH

Position and Extent.—Australia, the smallest of the continents, the largest among the islands of the world, covers an area of 2,934,515 sq. m. (mainland only). It extends 2,560 miles from west to east, 1,970 miles from north to south, and its coastline has a development of 9,620 miles (exclusive of all minor bays), being 1 mile to 305 sq. m. of area. The area, including coastal islands and Tasmania, is 2,972,905 sq. m.

Population (1901), 3,815,326, inclusive of about 45,000 aborigines and 33,000 Chinese. The bulk are Europeans who have settled in the country since its discovery.

Physical Features. — Eastern portion mountainous; Great Dividing Chain, extending north and south, culminates in Australian Alps (Mt. Kosciusko, 7,336 feet). Interior mainly level or rolling plains. Western portion vast sandy desert, mountainous toward coast. Chief rivers rise on western slope of Alps; Murray most important. Largest fresh-water lake, Alexandrina; numerous salt lakes occur.

Climate generally warm, dry, and healthful; south temperate, north tropical. Interior subject to prolonged drought and heat. Rainfall abundant only on portions of north, northeast, and southeast coasts. Seasons reverse of those of Northern hemisphere.

Coast.—Most of the coast is barren and uninviting. Inlets and natural harbors abound only in the east, southeast and northwest. The northern portion of the east coast, for a distance of 1,400 miles, is fringed by coral reefs.

NEW SOUTH WALES.—The oldest Colony in Australia, is traversed throughout its entire length by a Dividing Range, which separates a narrow coastland from the interior tablelands and plains. The coastland is wooded, and is the chief seat of agriculture. The interior drains into the navigable Murray, and yields abundant pasturage. The Colony lies wholly within the temperate zone.

Area and Population.—310,700 sq. m.; Population, 1,648,210. Sydney, capital and chief port of State; population 621,100. Broken Hill, silver-mining center, 30,600. New Castle, second seaport, 55,630. Goulburn, 10,700; Parramatta, 12,550; Maitland, 10,500; Bathurst, 9,223.

VICTORIA.—A Dividing Range (Mount Bogong, 6,500 feet) separates the southern plains from the broad pastoral lands extending to the river Murray. The former are

Political and Social Facts

AUSTRALIA—

History.— Existence of continent known in 16th century. Visited by Dutch 1606. New South Wales visited and named by Captain Cook 1770; British penal colony established at Sydney, 1788; at Brisbane, Queensland, 1825. First occupation of Western Australia 1826; settlement made at Portland, Victoria, 1834; at Adelaide, South Australia, 1836. Tremendous influx of population with discovery of gold near Bathurst, 1851. Commonwealth of Australia created 1900, by federation of States of New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia, and Tasmania. Government of Colony administered by a Governor-General appointed by the Crown.

Political Divisions.—The Commonwealth of Australia was formed in 1901, and consists of the six original states of New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia, and Tasmania. Canberra, the site for the new Commonwealth Capital, is situated in the south-east of New South Wales.

Government.—The legislative powers are vested in the King (represented by the Governor-General), a Senate, and a House of Representatives of 75 members.

According to **Religion** there are about 15,000 Jews, 41,000 Buddists, etc., 2,000 Mohammedans, 21,000 heathen, and 3,736,000 Christians.

NEW SOUTH WALES

Government. — Responsible government under a Governor and Legislative Council of not less than 21 life members appointed by the Crown, and a popularly elected Assembly of 90 members.

Education.—Elementary education compulsory; age 6-14; free to poor. Government schools, and private schools. All **religions** tolerated; Church of England predominates. About two-thirds of the people Protestants.

Dependencies.—These include Norfolk Island, the home of the descendants of the mutineers of the Bounty (10 sq. m., population 827) and Lord Howe (6 sq. m., population 120) in the Tasman Sea; Pitcairn (2 sq. m., population 169) and Ducie (1 sq. m.) in the Eastern Pacific.

VICTORIA

History.—Originally a part of New South Wales; erected into a separate colony 1851. Most densely populated of Australian States.

Industry and Commerce

AUSTRALIA—

Fauna and Flora.—When discovered there were neither carnivorous animals (except the dingo,) nor ruminants. Pouched Animals (such as the kangaroo), cockatoos, the emu, and birds of paradise are most characteristic of the continent. The vegetation is equally peculiar, the principal trees being Eucalypti (grass trees, gum trees, iron bark, etc.), acacias, and casuarinas (oaks). The woods are confined to regions of heavier rainfall. Much of the interior is an open grass-land with scattered trees, degenerating in the more arid parts into a veritable desert.

Industries.—Mining (gold, copper, tin), agriculture, and the breeding of domestic animals, are the chief industries.

Commerce.—On the assumption of Australia forming a Customs Union, and therefore exclusive of inter-Colonial trade, the annual imports amount to $200,000,000 (from the United Kingdom 57 per cent), the exports to $250,000,000 (to United Kingdom 90 per cent, United States, 9 per cent).

NEW SOUTH WALES

Industries.—Agriculture and mining supports 31 per cent, industries 26 per cent of the population. Yield: Wheat, maize, tobacco, and potatoes. Principal fruit culture is the orange.

Stock raising and production of wool, chief industries.

Manufactures principally machinery, textiles, clothing, preserved meats, etc.; exports, chiefly gold, copper, wool, hides, and coal. **Mineral** resources valuable and extensive; gold deposits widely distributed; rich in silver, copper, lead, tin, iron and coal.

VICTORIA

Forests extensive and valuable; abound in beautiful and durable woods suitable for shipbuilding, carriage, cabinet work, etc., red

AUSTRALASIA OR OCEANIA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
well watered and thickly wooded, but over the latter the rainfall is deficient, and agricultural pursuits necessitate irrigation works. The climate is genial. **Area,** 87,884 sq. m. **Population,** 1,315,000—98 per cent British subjects by birth; 73 per cent native Victorians. Melbourne, capital and chief seaport; population, 591,830. Ballarat, second city, 44,000.	**Government.** — Responsible government. Governor appointed by the Crown. Legislature exercised by a Parliament of two Chambers, viz., a Legislative Council elected under a limited franchise, and a popularly elected Assembly. **Education.** — Compulsory and secular. Besides a University and 36 technological colleges, there is a fine system of elementary schools. Primary **education** free. No State **religion;** 75 per cent of population Protestants, 22 per cent Catholic.	gum most valuable; State forests cover an area of 4,160,342 acres. **Agricultural** products include cereals, hops, tobacco, fiber plants, vine and olives. **Live stock,** horses, cattle, sheep, pigs. Wool product important. Dairy industry has made marked progress. **Manufactures** almost entirely for home consumption. Exports, principally gold, wool, live stock, etc. **Mineral** wealth, gold, coal, tin, gypsum, silver, antimony, etc.
QUEENSLAND. — Includes a narrow strip of lowland on the Coral Sea; a broad plain around the Gulf of Carpentaria, and an interior tableland, with mountains probably nowhere exceeding 5,000 feet in height. Above one-half the country is covered with natural forests. The climate is sub-tropical in the south, tropical in the north. **Area,** 668,497, sq. m. **Population,** 605,043. Chinese and Polynesians, about 20,000. Brisbane, capital, leading city and chief port; estimated population, 143,077. Rockhampton, port and mining center; population, 19,691.	**QUEENSLAND** **History.**—Eastern shore discovered by Cook, 1770; first explorations made 1823; settlements established 1825; became a separate colony 1859. **Government.**—A responsible Government vested in a Governor, a Legislative Council (members appointed for life by the Crown), and an Assembly, elected under a popular franchise. Primary **education** free; public elementary schools. All **religions** equal; 75 per cent of population Protestant, 18 per cent Catholic.	**QUEENSLAND** **Forests** cover about one-half the total surface; cedar, eucalyptus, pine, most useful timbers. **Agriculture** flourishes on eastern seaboard; leading grain crops, maize, wheat. Sugar cane occupied 95,000 acres; cotton, tobacco, rice, tropical and semi-tropical fruits successfully cultivated. **Live stock** includes horses, cattle, sheep. Wool staple production of the State. **Manufactures** principally sugar, preserved and frozen meats, meat extracts, etc. Leading exports: Gold, and other metals, coal, animal products, wool, and sugar. **Minerals,** chief source of wealth, include gold, coal, tin, copper, silver, lead, and opals.
SOUTH AUSTRALIA. — Stretches right across the continent, but the bulk of its population is concentrated in the district lying to the east of Spencer Gulf, which is traversed by a range of mountains (3,180 feet), and where the rainfall suffices for the needs of agriculture. The interior consists mainly of unproductive lands, while the extreme north affords fine pastures and abounds in gold. **Climate** compares favorably with that of southern France and Italy. **Area** of South Australia proper, 380,070 sq. m.; Northern Territory, 523,620 sq. m. **Population,** 403,558; Northern Territory, 3,310. Adelaide, capital and commercial center; population, 192,000.	**SOUTH AUSTRALIA—** **History.**—Proclaimed a British Province 1836; the Northern Territory was transferred to the commonwealth in 1911. **Government.**—Executive in the hands of a Governor appointed by the Crown and a responsible ministry; legislative power exercised by a Parliament of two Chambers—a "Council" and an "Assembly," the members of former being elected under a limited franchise for three years.	**SOUTH AUSTRALIA—** **Agriculture.**—Wheat chief crop. Wine product, 3,470,000 gallons; sugar cane, English fruit, oranges, lemons, almonds, and olives successfully grown. **Live stock,** horses, cattle, sheep. **Manufactories** chiefly brass and iron, farming implement factories, flouring mills. **Exports,** leading articles, wool, wheat, flour, and copper. Chief **minerals** copper and silver; gold, iron, and lead also obtained.
WESTERN AUSTRALIA. — Largest Australian State. **Area,** 975,920 sq. m. It consists in the main of a vast tableland of moderate elevation. Woods are found only in the tropical north and the extreme southwest; the interior is a desert; the rest affords pasture. **Population,** exclusive of aborigines, 283,986. Perth, capital and trade center; population, 54,354. Fremantle, chief port, 19,346.	**WESTERN AUSTRALIA—** **Government.**—A State Government, vested in a Governor appointed by the Crown; a Legislative Council, elected for six years under a limited franchise; and a popular chosen Assembly. **Education** compulsory; government schools. All **religions** equal.	**WESTERN AUSTRALIA** Estimated **forest** area 20,400,000 acres; jarrah (eucalyptus), noted for its durability, covers vast tracts; timber especially valuable for bridge building and harbor work; sandalwood, abundant in southwest, long an article of export. **Agriculture** advancing; large tracts of fertile soil exist. Principal cereal, wheat; fruits grow luxuriantly; culture of vine extending. **Live stock,** horses, cattle, sheep, etc. Pearl **fisheries** important. Exports, chiefly gold. **Minerals** leading source of wealth; gold, silver, copper, tin and coal obtained.
TASMANIA.—Surface generally hilly (Mount Lomond, 5,000 feet). **Area,** including Macquarie, 26,215 sq. m. Surface in general mountainous (Cradle Mountain, 5,069 feet). Derwent most important river. **Climate** mild and delightful. **Population,** 190,898. Hobart, capital; population, 27,719, Launceston, 20,838.	**TASMANIA—** **History.**—Discovered by Tasman 1642 and named Van Diemen's Land; British penal colony established 1804; transportation of criminals ceased 1853. Renamed Tasmania 1856. **Government.**—A responsible government vested in a Governor, a Legislative Council, and a House of Assembly. **Education** compulsory. All **religions** equal.	**TASMANIA—** Extensive **forests,** abounding in beautiful cabinet woods and other valuable timbers, exist; blue gum most valuable tree. Chief cereal wheat. **Live stock,** horses, cattle, sheep. Wool clip, 9,940,000 pounds. Fruit-preserving a leading industry, ore smelting works, breweries, tanneries, etc. Exports: Leading articles wool, gold and silver, tin, fruit, timber, hops. **Minerals** include gold, silver, tin, copper, galena, and coal.

AUSTRALASIA OR OCEANIA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
NEW ZEALAND Comprises North, Middle or South, and Stewart Islands and outlying islets; total **area** 104,751 sq. m. Large islands mountainous (Mt. Cook, 12,349 feet); rivers abound, few navigable. **Climate** healthful; rainfall most abundant on west coast. **Population,** 1911, exclusive of aborigines, 1,008,468. Wellington, capital; population, with suburbs, 70,729. Auckland, port of call for California mail steamers; with suburbs, 102,676. **Dependencies.**—In addition to Chatham Island, Kermadec, etc., included above, the Cook, or Hervey, Isles (142 sq. m., population 6,234); Savage Island (26 sq. m., population 4,079); and Penrhyn, Manahiki, etc., (52 sq. m., population 1,979). Total, 230 sq. m., population 12,292.	**Dependency.**—In addition to islands in Bass Strait, included above, Macquarie Island, no inhabitants, but annually visited by a few sealers. **NEW ZEALAND**— **History.**—Sighted and named by Tasman, 1642; visited by Cook 1769; recognized as British possession 1814. First colonial settlement made at Wellington 1840. Designated Dominion of New Zealand, 1907. **Government.**—Governor and General Assembly, including a Legislative Council (members appointed by the Crown for 7 years), and a House of Representatives. **Religion.**—Protestants, 84 per cent, Roman Catholics, 14 per cent. **Education** highly developed.	**NEW ZEALAND** **Forests** cover about 17,000,000 acres; kauri pine most valuable for timber and gum. Two-thirds of area suitable for **agriculture** and grazing. Wheat and oats principal crops. Olive, vine, and semi-tropical fruits raised. **Stock raising** chief industry; horses, cattle, sheep, pigs. Wool clip, 210,010,000 pounds. Leading **manufactures** freezing and preserving meats. Exports: gold, silver, coal, and kauri gum.

BRITISH AND DUTCH POSSESSIONS

BRITISH EAST INDIES.—Comprise British North Borneo, Island of Labuan, and protectorates of Brunei and Sarawak.

British North Borneo held under grants from Sultans of Brunei and Sulu; became a British protectorate 1888.

Area, 31,106 sq. m. Coast line 900 miles. Tobacco, coffee, cocoanut, india rubber and ramie plantations established. Sago, rice, Indian corn, sugar cane, cotton, ground and betel nuts, tapioca and sweet potatoes grown by natives. Other exports are timber, rattan, india rubber, sago, birds' nests, and pearls.

Minerals include gold and coal in paying quantities.

Population, 200,000, principally Mohammedan settlers on coast, aboriginal tribes in interior, and some Chinese traders and artisans. Sandakan, capital; population, 6,000. Protestant and Roman Catholic missions established. Region under jurisdiction of British North Borneo Company; administered by Governor at Borneo and Court of Directors in London.

Labuan incorporated with Singapore 1907; area 30 sq. m.; population, 6,546.

Sarawak.—Part of territory obtained by Sir James Brooke from Sultan of Brunei 1842; other accessions, 1861, 1885, and 1890; placed under British protection 1888.

Area, 42,000 sq. m.; coast line, 400 miles. Extensive level tracts along coast. Principal vegetable product sago; Sarawak export of sago largest in world: cocoanuts also abundant. India rubber and other **forest** products, obtained chiefly in middle section, and gambier and pepper all largely exported. Southern section rich in **minerals;** antimony and quicksilver exported; coal abundant, also gold and silver.

Population, 500,000. Kuching, or Sarawak, capital; population, about 25,000.

Government administered by a Rajah.

Brunei placed under British protection 1888.

Area, 4,000 sq. m. Products similar to those of North Borneo. Coal mined.

Population, 21,718. Capital Brunei on wide estuary of Brunei River; population, 10,000. Head of **government** Sultan.

FIJI ISLANDS.—Discovered by Tasman 1643; ceded by native chiefs to Great Britain 1874. Islands—numbering more than 200—are of volcanic origin, with lofty mountains, and well wooded.

Area, 7,435 sq. m.; largest, Viti Levu, 4,250. **Climate** warm but healthful; mean temperature, about 80 deg. Sugar, cocoanuts and bananas, chief products. Cattle run wild; horses, sheep, and Angora goats reared.

Estimated **population,** 139,541—3,707 Europeans. Suva, capital; has 1,376 European inhabitants. Public **schools** at Suva and Levuka; state school for natives only.

Besides the islands constituting Australasia, the principal groups, and isolated islands belonging to Great Britain are Cook Islands, Manihiki, Tokelau and Phœnix groups, Ellice Islands, Gilbert Islands, Santa Cruz Islands, British Solomon Islands, and the Islands of Pitcairn, Fanning, Malden and Christmas. New Hebrides Islands jointly protected by Great Britain and France.

DUTCH EAST INDIES

These include Java (population 28,747,000) and outlying possessions and feudatory states. **Area,** excluding the Dutch part of New Guinea, 587,156 sq. m., population 35,800,000, of whom about 76,000 are Europeans, 537,000 Chinese, 27,000 Arabs, 17,000 Indians, 100,000 Negritos, the remainder being Malays. According to religion there are 424,000 Christians, 32,800,000 Mohammedans, 1,080,000 Buddhists, etc., 1,500,000 heathen.

Staple exports: Sugar, coffee, tobacco, tin (from Banka and Billiton). Chief trade with the Netherlands, 56 per cent, and the British Indies.

Chief towns.—Batavia, 115,887; Surakarta, 109,458; Surabaya, 146,944.

FRENCH POSSESSIONS

FRENCH POSSESSIONS—

Comprise New Caledonia and dependencies, and the Society Islands, the Marquesas, Tuamotu, Gambier, and Tubuai groups, and the Island of Rapa.

SOCIETY ISLANDS discovered by Spanish 1606; visited by Capt. Wallis 1767; by Cook 1769. Under French protection since 1842; Windward group annexed 1880; Leeward 1885. Archipelago in eastern portion of Polynesia.

Area, 650 sq. m. (Tahiti, 600; Moorea, 50). Island mountainous; well watered by numerous streams. Chief productions vanilla, coffee, copra, sugar, and mother-of-pearl. **Population** of Tahiti, 11,691; Moorea, 1,564. Papeete, chief town and port; 3,617. Inhabitants nominally Christians. **Government** vested in a Governor and Consulting Council.

NEW CALEDONIA (French penal colony—discovered by Cook 1774; seized and colonized by

FRENCH POSSESSIONS—Continued

French 1853. Island and dependencies—Isle of Pines, 58 sq. m., Loyalty Archipelago, 756 sq. m. Huon and Chesterfield islands between Australia and Fiji, and Wallis Archipelago, north-east of Fiji.

Area 7,650 sq. m. Products, cereals, pineapples, coffee, sugar, cocoanuts, cotton, manioc, vanilla, vines, cattle. Chief articles of import: Apparel wines, spirits, provisions, etc. Exports: nickel, preserved meat, chrome, and silver lead ore. **Minerals** include coal, nickel, lead ore, chrome, and cobalt. **Population,** 55,886; natives, 32,427; penal, 7,034. Noumea, capital and seaport; population, 8,451. **Government** vested in Governor, with Council-General and municipal councils.

MARQUESAS.—Four of the islands discovered by Mendana 1596; others by Cook 1774. Under French protection since 1842. Group comprises 13 islands in Polynesia.

Area 480 sq. m. Surface mountainous. Products pulse, yams, sugar cane, bamboos, cocoanuts, wild cotton, etc. **Live stock,** copra, and cotton exported. **Population,** 3,424, about one-tenth of that in 1842.

TUAMOTU ISLANDS discovered 1797; French missionaries settled at Mangareva 1834. Islands, over 80 in number. Group forms a dependency of French possession of Tahiti. Total **area** 330 sq. m. Very little productive soil. **Population** 3,828 French Resident at Rotoana, on Fakarava Island.

FORMER GERMAN POSSESSIONS.

FORMER GERMAN POSSESSIONS.—Embrace the northeastern portion of New Guinea (Kaiser Wilhelm's Land), Bismarck Archipelago, under Australian Mandatory, Marshall Islands, the Marianne or Ladrone Islands (exclusive of Guam), the Caroline Islands and Pelew Islands.

CAROLINE ISLANDS.—Discovered by Portuguese, 1526; named for Charles II of Spain 1686; Spanish claims contested by English, 1875; awarded to Spain by Pope, 1885. Ceded to Germany 1899. Group consists of 700 islands lying east of Philippines.

Area, 270 sq. m. Chief products copra, oranges, bread-fruit, cocoanuts, cloves, and sugar cane. **Population** about 52,000. Western capital Yap, eastern Ponape. Japanese Mandatory.

MARIANNE and PELEW ISLANDS.—Discovered by Magelan 1521 occupied by Spain 1668 with exception of Guam, ceded to Germany 1899. Group lies west and north of Caroline and east of Philippine Islands. **Area** 420 sq. m. **Population,** 6,000. Japanese Mandatory.

MARSHALL ISLANDS.—Annexed to Germany 1885-1886. Group of 33 coral islands—in two chains—east of Caroline Islands. **Area** 158 sq. m. Cocoa palms cultivated. Phosphates and copra chief articles of trade. **Population,** 15,000. Europeans, 179. Jaluit, chief island. Japanese Mandatory.

BISMARCK ARCHIPELAGO.—Discovered by Dampier 1699 and named New Britain Islands. Became a German protectorate and renamed 1884. Archipelago lies northeast of New Guinea.

Area, including Admiralty Islands, 20,000 sq. m. Natives agriculturists. Cotton plantations established by Germans. Exports: Cocoanuts, copra and cocoanut fibres. **Population** about 188,000. Australian Mandatory.

ISLANDS OCCUPIED JOINTLY

NEW GUINEA discovered by Portuguese 1511; named Papua in 1526; New Guinea 1545. Visited by Dutch 1676. Circumnavigated by Dampier 1699. Dutch took possession of country west of 141 deg. east, 1828. Southeastern portion became British protectorate 1884; a Crown Colony 1888. German protectorate established in northeast 1884. Total **area** about 312,000 sq. m. Interior wide plains and lofty mountains; greatest elevation 16,000 feet. Chief rivers Kaiserin Augusta and Fly. Northern coast mountainous, southwestern low and marshy. Coast line deeply indented; has fine harbors.

Dense **forests** contain cedar, sandalwood, ebony, india rubber, areca and sago palms, bamboos, etc. Soil adapted to tobacco, rice, tea, sugar cane, coffee, cotton, fruits, etc. Germans have established cotton and tobacco plantations. Bananas, yams, sweet potatoes, and taro, chief food of natives, largely cultivated. Horses, cattle, and goats reared. Chief **industries** wood carving and manufacture of rope and pottery. Leading exports—copra, pearl shell, trepang, gold, pearls, and sandalwood. Gold, coal, and plumbago found. **Population** about 1,800,000. Area of **Papua (British),** 90,540 sq. m.; population 270,000. Government administered by Lieutenant-Governor. New South Wales, Victoria, and Queensland furnish funds and have a voice in its affairs. Port Moresby, capital; population 1,500.

British Papua formerly German New Guinea—Area 70,000 sq. m.; population about 300,000. Mandatory of Australia. Friedrick Wilhelmshafen most important harbor.

SAMOAN ISLANDS.—Earliest explorations by Bougainville 1768; Christianity introduced 1830. Neutrality and independence guaranteed by Great Britain, United States, and Germany 1889. Islands divided between Germany and United States 1899. In middle of Pacific about 400 miles northeast of Fiji; the largest, Savaii and Upolu, belong to Australia, Tutuila and adjacent islands to United States.

Total **area** 1,701 sq. m. Chief products sugar, coffee, cotton, maize, tropical fruits. **Population** 39,300 (Upolu 20,662; Savaii 12,816); whites, 1911, 447. Apia, chief trading center; population 3,742. Pago-pago, Tutuila, fine natural harbor. Natives—Polynesians—are Christians.

NEW HEBRIDES discovered by Spanish 1606; explored and named by Cook 1774. Group northeast of New Caledonia, stretches northwest and southeast 500 miles. **Area,** 5,700 sq. m. Cocoanuts (for copra), maize, millet, coffee, and bananas grown. **Population** about 80,000. Jointly administered by France and England.

SOLOMON ISLANDS discovered by Mendana 1567-8; re-discovered by Bougainville 1768. Archipelago in Melanesia, 500 miles east of New Guinea. **Area** 16,950 sq. m., in large part covered with thick **forests.** Chief commercial products tortoise shell, copra, ivory nuts, and sandalwood. Under British rule; Choiseul and Isabel ceded to Great Britain by Germany 1899.

POLAR REGIONS

ARCTIC EXPLORATION

Commander	Nationality	Date	N. lat. att'nd	Locality
John Davis	British	1587	72° 41′	West Greenland
Wm. Barentz	Dutch	1594	77° 20′	Nova Zembla.
Henry Hudson	British	1607	80° 23′	Greenland and Spitzbergen
Henry Hudson	British	1610	—	Hudson strait.
William Baffin	British	1616	77° 45′	Smith sound.
V. Bering	Danish	1728	70° 41′	disc. Bering Strait.
Tchelyuskin	Russian	1743	77° 48′	North Siberia.
J. C. Phipps	British	1773	80° 48′	Spitzbergen Sea.
William Scoresby	British	1806	81° 12′	East Greenland
W. E. Parry	British	1827	82° 43′	Spitzbergen Sea
John Franklin	British	1846	—	North Canada
E. K. Kane	Amer.	1854	78° 45′	Smith Sound.
O. Nordenskiold	Swede	1868	81° 42′	Spitzbergen Sea.
C. F. Hall	Amer.	1871	82° 16′	West Greenland coast.
Julius Payer	Austria	1874	82° 5′	disc. Franz Josef Land.
G. S. Nares	British	1876	83° 20′	Grinnell Land.
Nordenskiold	Swede	1876–9	77° 41′	First northeast passage.
A. W. Greely	Amer.	1882	83° 24′	North Greenland.
Fred. Jackson	British	1896	81° 20′	Franz Josef Land.
Fridtjof Nansen	Norw.	1896	86° 14′	North of Franz Josef Land.
Duke of Abruzzi	Italian	1900	86° 33′	North of Franz Josef Land.
R. E. Peary	Amer.	1906	87° 6′	North of Grant Land.
F. A. Cook	Amer.	1908	—	Claimed to have reached the pole, April 21.
R. E. Peary	Amer.	1909	90°	Reached the pole April 6.

ARCTIC REGIONS.—
Lands within the Arctic Circle comprise 1,233,000 square miles; most important, Greenland and Arctic Archipelago in America; Spitzbergen, Novaya Zemlya, Franz Josef Land, Kolguev, Jan Mayen, and Lofoten Islands, Europe; Lyakhov, New Siberia, Kotelnyi, and Wrangel Land Islands, Asia.

Greenland.—Discovered by Eric the Red, 986; colonized by Norsemen; rediscovered by Davis, 1585; recolonized by Danes, 1721. Recent explorers include Kane, Hill, Nares, Greely, Nansen, 1888; Peary, 1889–92, 1893-95, and 1900-02. Interior a lofty plateau overspread by a glacier, height, 9,000 to 10,000 feet. Shores deeply indented by fiords; source of North Atlantic Icebergs. **Area** about 700,000 square miles in all; only 34,000 habitable. **Climate** severe, country icebound October to about June. Inhabitants, chiefly Eskimos, on west coast between Cape Farewell and 73 deg. N.; largely engaged in whale and seal fisheries; population, 1901, 11,893. Exports: Sealskins, blubber, codliver oil, and ivory. Danish colony; divided into two inspectorates: Godthaab, seat of inspector of South; Godhavn, seat of inspector of North.

Arctic Archipelago of North America.—Islands belong to British North America. Area estimated at 502,440 square miles; islands entirely within Arctic Circle, 416,000; population about 1,000.

Spitzbergen.—Discovered 1596 by Dutch under Jacob van Heemskerk. Base of Arctic expeditions especially those of Nordenskjold and other Swedish explorers. Group belongs to Russia; comprises six larger and many smaller islands—Western Spitzbergen, most important, area 15,200 sq. m. Surface almost entirely covered with ice and snow. Winter for ten months, during which time mercury freezes. Not permanently inhabited; frequented by Dutch, Danish and Norwegian whalers. Numerous whales, seals, and white bears; reindeer in some parts. Coal has been worked since 1900. Smeerenberg Bay affords best anchorage.

Novaya Zemlya (Nova Zembla).—Discovered by English, 1553, visited by Barentz, 1594; explored by Count Lütke, 1821-24; visited in late years by numerous expeditions; crossed by Grinevetsky, 1878. Belongs to Russia. Surface elevated and mountainous, northern part covered by an ice-sheet. **Area,** 35,163 square miles. Average yearly temperature west coast, 17 deg.; summer, 36.5 deg.; corresponding latitudes on east coast still lower. On west coast influences of Gulf Stream felt. Brown and white bear, common and polar fox, and wolf found; walruses, seals, and dolphins abound on the coasts. Permanent settlement of Samoyede families at Karmakuly.

Franz Josef Land.—Discovered by Austrian navigators, Payer and Weyprecht, Aug. 31, 1873; explored by them in 1874. Extensive explorations by Jackson-Harmsworth expedition, 1894-97. Wellman expedition 1898-99. **Area** estimated 19,000 sq. m. Uninhabited. Mean annual temperature, 4.6 deg.; Feb., 22 deg.; July, 35.2 deg.

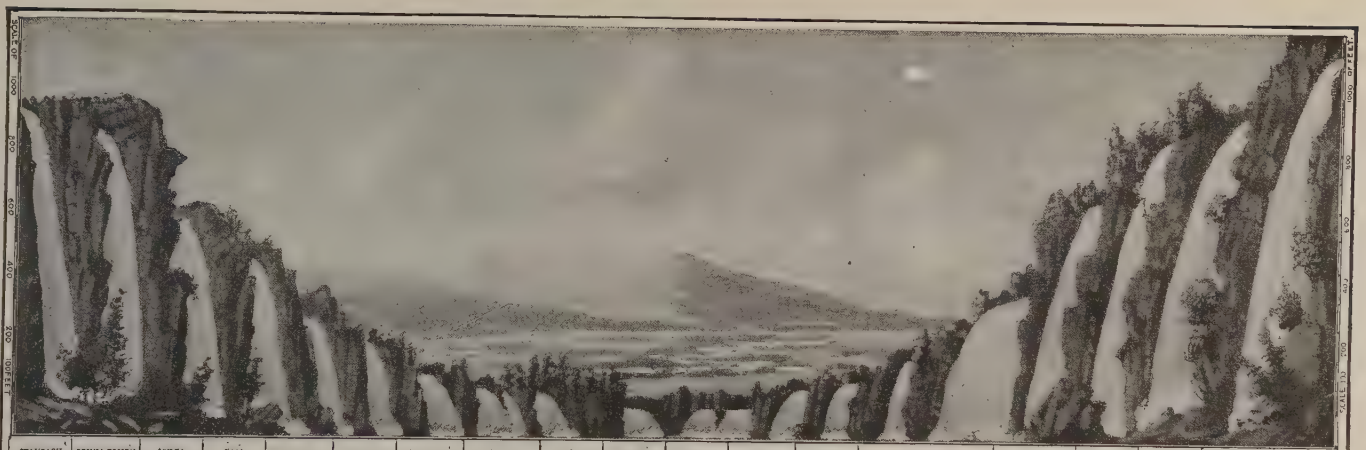
Kolguev.—Belongs to Russia. **Area,** 1,627 sq. m. Surface tundra, altitude 100 to 140 feet. Visited by Arctic hunters for white bears, walruses, etc.

ANTARCTIC REGIONS.—
Lands discovered within Antarctic regions almost everywhere inaccessible. Recent explorations determined character of polar region as an elevated land-mass of continental proportions, containing great beds of coal and other mineral wealth. Antarctic regions as compared with Arctic remarkable for low temperature. Icebergs from Arctic Ocean carried south as far as 40th parallel; bergs and floes from Antarctic found, even in summer, 10 or 15 degrees nearer equator. In warmest part midsummer temperature is practically at freezing point. Entire region within snow line.

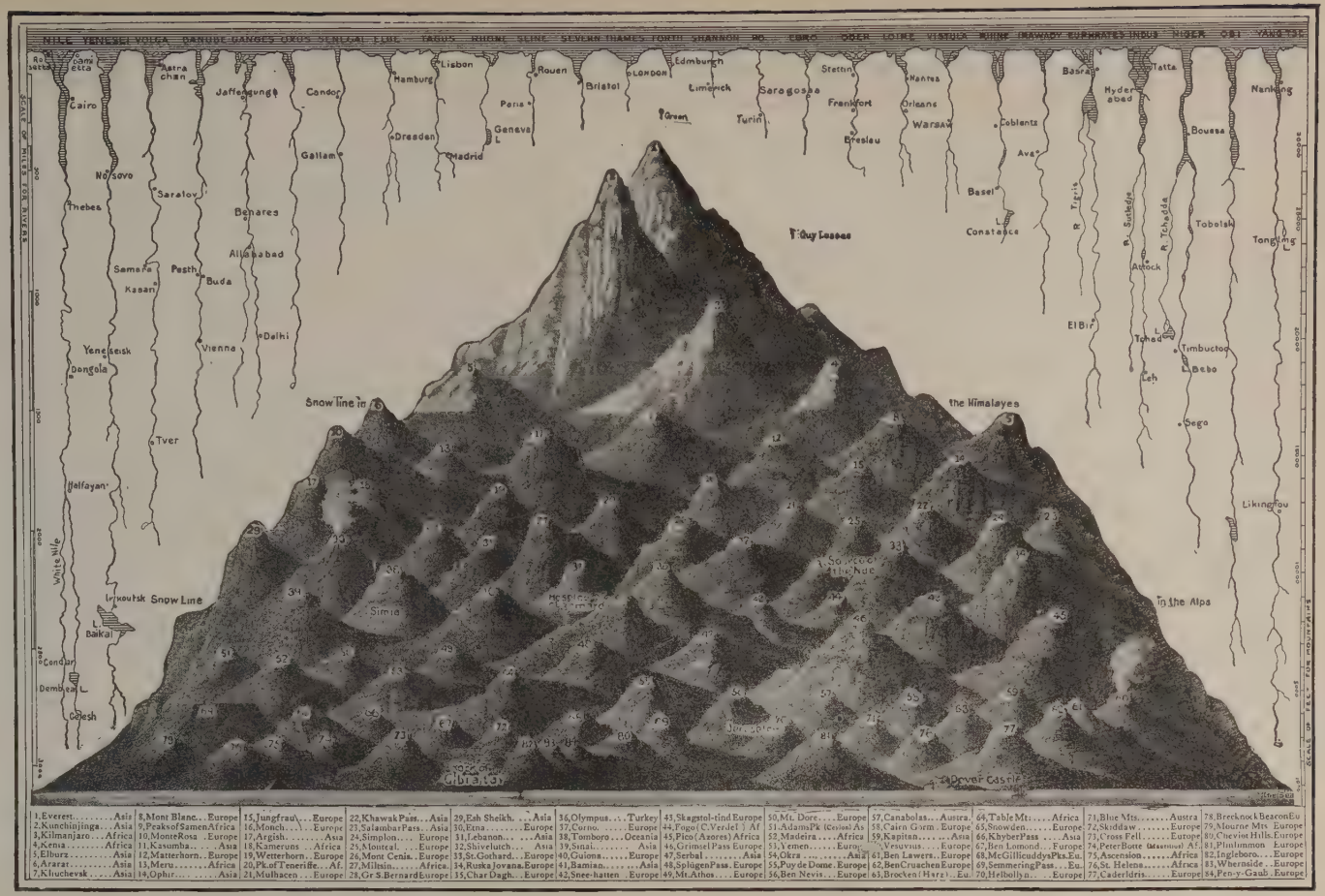
ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION

Commander	Nationality	Date	South Latitude	Longitude
J. Cook	British	1773	67° 5′	142° W.
J. Cook	British	1774	71° 15′	106° W.
Bellingshausen	Russian	1820	67°	var.
Weddell	British	1824	74° 15′	34° W.
D'Urville	French	1840	66°	140° E.
Wilkes	British	1840	66°	var.
James Ross	British	1840	71° 56′	171° E.
James Ross	British	1843	78° 11′	161° E.
Larsen	Norwegian	1893	68° 10′	60° W.
Christiansen	Swedish	1895	74° 0′	170° E.
De Gerlache	Belgian	1899	71° 36′	87° W.
Borchgrevink	Br.-Nor.	1900	78° 50′	165° W.
Scott	British	1902	82° 17′	163° W.
Bruce	British	1904	74° 0′	24° W.
Shackleton	British	1909	88° 23′	
Amundsen	Norwegian	1911	Reached pole	Dec. 14
Scott	British	1912	Reached pole	Jan. 18

COMPARATIVE SIZE OF WATERFALLS, ISLANDS AND LAKES OF THE EASTERN HEMISPHERE



STAUBACH Switzerland	REUKA FOSSEN Norway	LULEA Sweden	TOSA Piedmont	PISSE-VACHE Switzerland	ACHARN Scotland	W. CUDAIZZA Dalmatia	RUPIN Himalaya M.	KERKA Dalmatia	TROLHETTA Sweden	RHINE Germany	REUSS Switzerland	TENDON France	VICTORIA FALLS Africa	GREY MARESTAIL Scotland	SERIO DELL ADDA, Italy	SECULEJO Spain	BOBY MYLLEN France	GAVARNIE Pyrenees

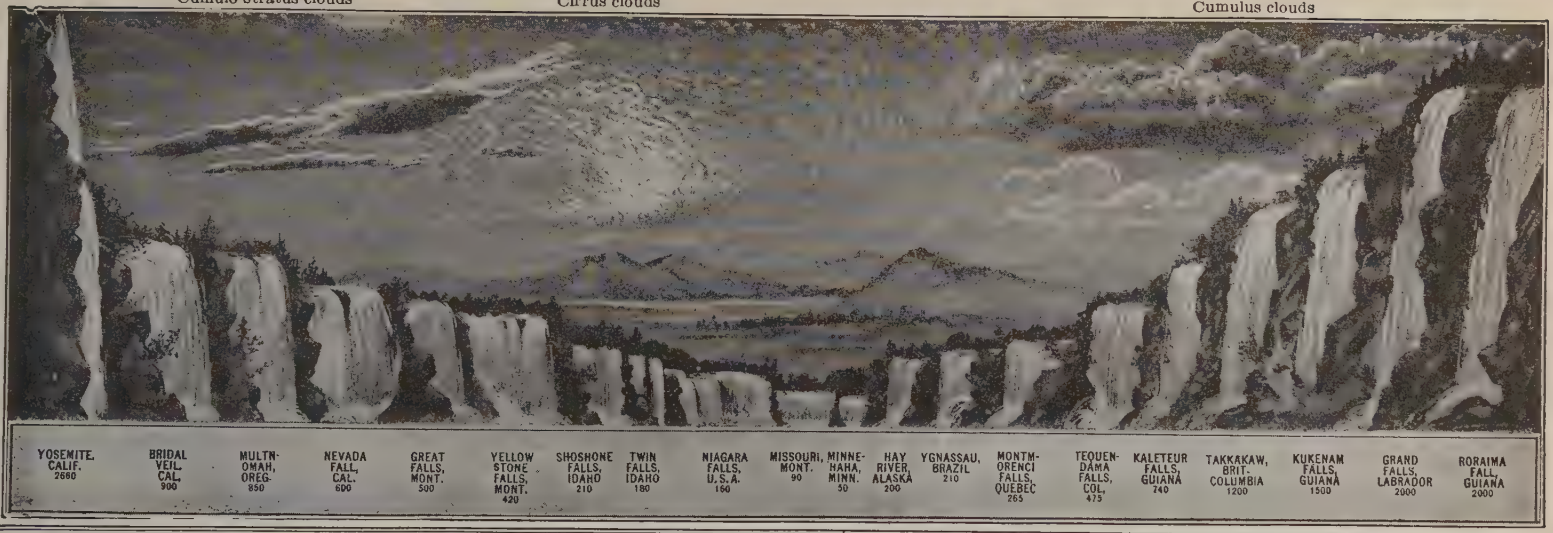


1, Everest.....Asia	8, Mont Blanc...Europe	15, Jungfrau\...Europe	22, Khawak Pass...Asia	29, Esh Sheikh. ...Asia	36, Olympus....Turkey	43, Skagstol-tind Europe	50, Mt. Dore.....Europe	57, Canabolas...Austra.	64, Table Mt.....Africa	71, Blue Mts.....Austra	78, Brecknock Beacon Eu
2, Kunchinjinga...Asia	9, Peaks of Samen Africa	16, Monch....\...Europe	23, Salambar Pass..Asia	30, Etna.....Europe	37, Corno.....Europe	44, Fogo (C. Verde) Af	51, Adams Pk (Ceylon) As	58, Cairn Gorm..Europe	65, Snowden.....Europe	72, Skiddaw.....Europe	79, Mourne Mts Europe
3, Kilimanjaro...Africa	10, Monte Rosa..Europe	17, Argish.....Asia	24, Simplon.....Europe	31, Lebanon.....Asia	38, Tomboro...Oceania	45, Pico (Azores) Africa	52, Madeira....Africa	59, Kapitan.....Asia	66, Khyber Pass....Asia	73, Cross Fell.....Europe	80, Cheviot Hills Europe
4, Kenia.....Africa	11, Kasumba.....Asia	18, Kameruns...Africa	25, Monteal.....Europe	32, Shivelutch....Asia	39, Sinai.....Asia	46, Grimsel Pass Europe	53, Yemen.....Europ	,Vesuvius.....Europe	67, Ben Lomond...Europe	74, Peter Botte (Mauritius) Af.	81, Plinlimmon Europe
5, Elburz.....Asia	12, Matterhorn..Europe	19, Wetterhorn..Europe	26, Mont Cenis..Europe	33, St. Gothard...Europe	40, Guiona.....Europe	47, Serbal.....Asia	54, Okra.....Asia	61, Ben Lawers..Europe	68, McGillicuddys Pks. Eu.	75, Ascension.....Africa	82, Ingleboro....Europe
6, Ararat.....Asia	13, Meru.....Africa	20, Pk of Teneriffe...Af.	27, Milsin.....Africa.	34, Ruska Jovana. Europe	41, Bamian.....Asia	48, Splugen Pass. Europe	55, Puy de Dome. Europe	62, Ben Cruachen Europe	69, Semmering Pass...Eu.	76, St. Helens.....Africa	83, Whernside..Europe
7, Kluchevsk.....Asia	14, Ophir.....Asia	21, Mulhacen...Europe	28, Gr S. Bernard Europe	35, Char Dagh...Europe	42, Snee-hatten..Europe	49, Mt. Athos....Europe	56, Ben Nevis....Europe	63, Brocken (Harz)..Eu.	70, Heiholly a....Europe	77, Caderidris.....Europe	84, Pen-y-Gaub..Europe

COMPARATIVE HEIGHT OF MOUNTAINS

LENGTH OF IMPORTANT RIVERS

COMPARATIVE SIZE OF WATERFALLS, ISLANDS AND LAKES OF THE WESTERN HEMISPHERE



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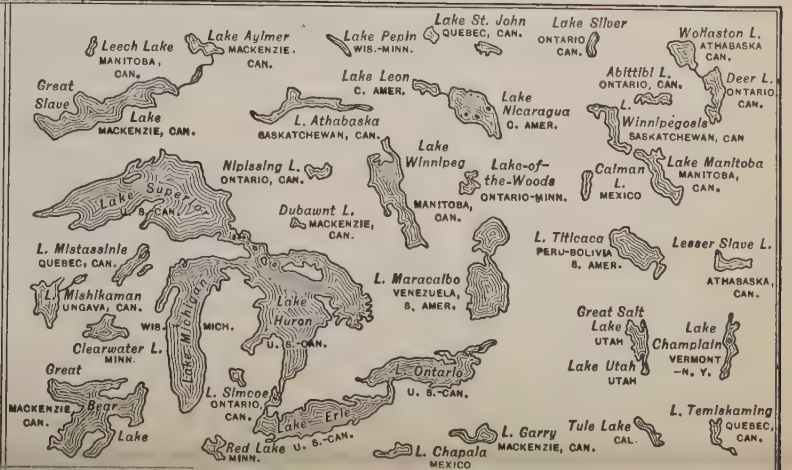
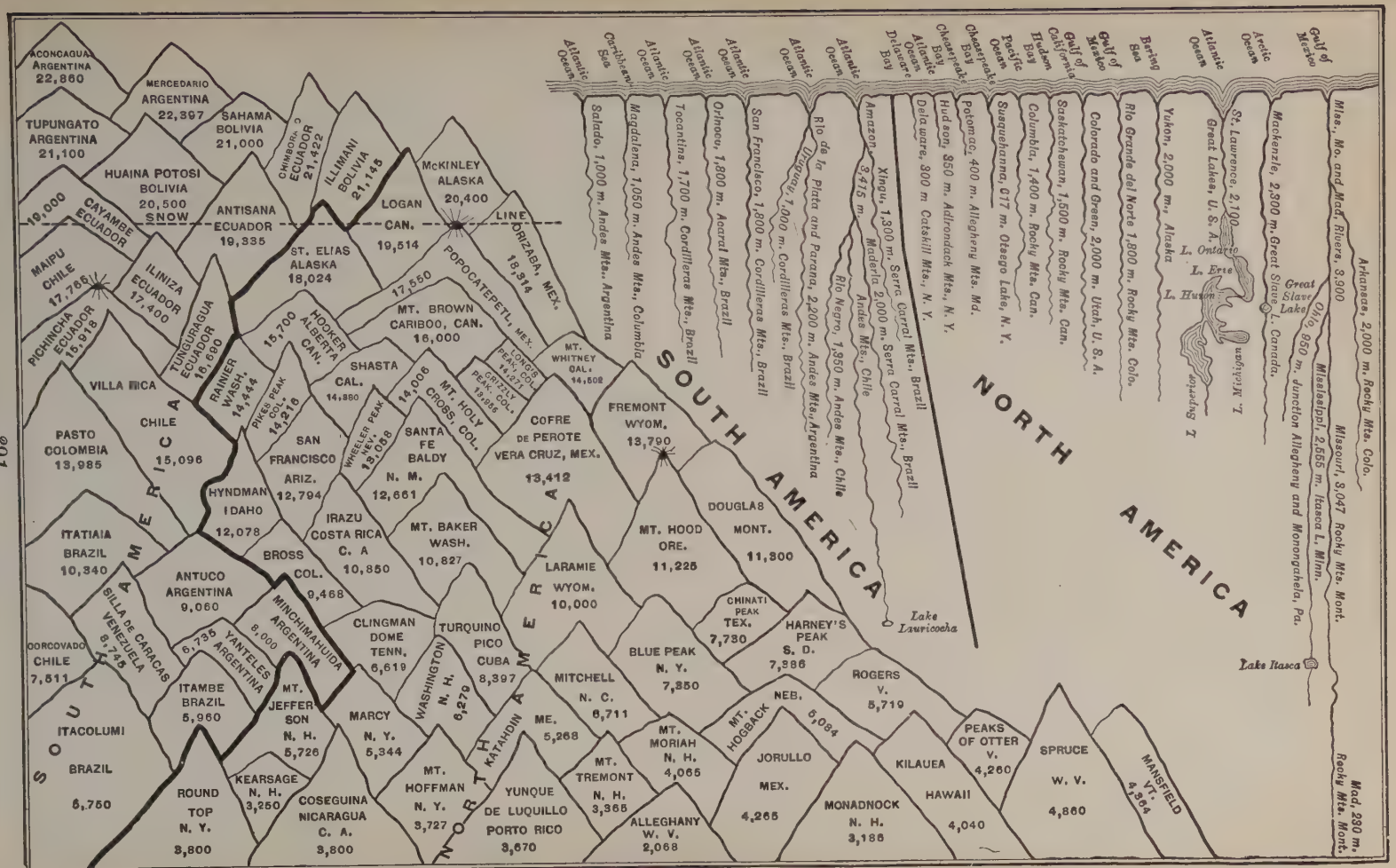



ACONCAGUA ARGENTINA 22,860
MERCEDARIO ARGENTINA 22,397
TUPUNGATO ARGENTINA 21,100
SAHAMA BOLIVIA 21,000
HUAINA POTOSI BOLIVIA 20,500
SNOW
19,000
CAYAMBE ECUADOR
CHIMBORAZO ECUADOR 21,422
ILLIMANI BOLIVIA 21,145
ANTISANA ECUADOR 19,335
MAIPU CHILE 17,786
ILINIZA ECUADOR 17,400
PICHINCHA ECUADOR 15,918
TUNGURAGUA ECUADOR 16,690
RAINIER WASH. 14,444
ST. ELIAS ALASKA 18,024
LOGAN CAN. 19,514
McKINLEY ALASKA 20,400
LINE
ORIZABA, MEX. 18,314
POPOCATEPETL, MEX. 17,550
MT. BROWN CARIBOO, CAN. 16,000
HOOKER ALBERTA CAN. 15,700
SHASTA CAL. 14,380
LONGS PEAK COL. 14,271
GRIZZLY PEAK COL. 13,985
MT. WHITNEY CAL. 14,502
PIKES PEAK COL. 14,216
WHEELER PEAK NEV. 13,058
MT. HOLY CROSS COL. 14,006
VILLA RICA CHILE 15,096
PASTO COLOMBIA 13,985
SAN FRANCISCO ARIZ. 12,794
SANTA FE BALDY N. M. 12,661
COFRE DE PEROTE VERA CRUZ, MEX. 13,412
FREMONT WYOM. 13,790
HYNDMAN IDAHO 12,078
IRAZU COSTA RICA C. A 10,850
MT. BAKER WASH. 10,827
ITATIAIA BRAZIL 10,340
BROSS COL. 9,468
ANTUCO ARGENTINA 9,060
LARAMIE WYOM. 10,000
MT. HOOD ORE. 11,225
DOUGLAS MONT. 11,300
CHINATI PEAK TEX. 7,730
HARNEY'S PEAK S. D. 7,386
ROGERS V. 5,719
SILLA DE CARACAS VENEZUELA 8,745
CORCOVADO CHILE 7,511
6,735
YANTELES ARGENTINA 8,000
MINCHIMAHUIDA ARGENTINA
CLINGMAN DOME TENN. 6,619
TURQUINO PICO CUBA 8,397
WASHINGTON N. H. 6,279
BLUE PEAK N. Y. 7,350
MITCHELL N. C. 6,711
ME. 5,268
MT. HOGBACK NEB. 5,084
ITAMBE BRAZIL 5,960
MT. JEFFERSON N. H. 5,726
MARCY N. Y. 5,344
KATAHDIN
MT. MORIAH N. H. 4,065
JORULLO MEX. 4,265
PEAKS OF OTTER V. 4,260
ITACOLUMI BRAZIL 5,750
KEARSAGE N. H. 3,250
ROUND TOP N. Y. 3,800
COSEGUINA NICARAGUA C. A. 3,800
MT. HOFFMAN N. Y. 3,727
MT. TREMONT N. H. 3,365
YUNQUE DE LUQUILLO PORTO RICO 3,670
ALLEGHANY W. V. 2,068
MONADNOCK N. H. 3,186
KILAUEA HAWAII 4,040
SPRUCE W. V. 4,860
MANSFIELD VT. 4,364
SOUTH AMERICA
NORTH AMERICA
Salado, 1,000 m. Andes Mts., Argentina
Magdalena, 1,050 m. Andes Mts., Columbia
Tocantina, 1,700 m. Cordilleras Mts., Brazil
Orinoco, 1,800 m. Acaral Mts., Brazil
San Francisco, 1,800 m. Cordilleras Mts., Brazil
Rio de la Plata and Parana, 2,200 m. Andes Mts., Argentina
Uruguay, 1,000 m. Cordilleras Mts., Brazil
Amazon, 3,415 m.
Madeira 2,000 m. Serra Corral Mts., Brazil
Rio Negro, 1,950 m. Andes Mts., Chile
Andes Mts., Chile
Xingu, 1,300 m. Serra Corral Mts., Brazil
Delaware, 300 m. Catskill Mts., N. Y.
Hudson, 350 m. Adirondack Mts., N. Y.
Potomac, 400 m. Alleghany Mts. Md.
Susquehanna, 617 m. Otsego Lake, N. Y.
Columbia, 1,400 m. Rocky Mts. Can.
Saskatchewan, 1,500 m. Rocky Mts. Can.
Colorado and Green, 2,000 m. Utah, U. S. A.
Rio Grande del Norte 1,800 m. Rocky Mts. Colo.
Yukon, 2,000 m., Alaska
St. Lawrence, 2,100
Great Lakes, U. S. A.
L. Ontario
L. Erie
L. Huron
L. Michigan
L. Superior
Great Slave Lake
L. Canada
Mackenzie, 2,800 m. Great Slave L. Canada
Ohio, 950 m. junction Allegheny and Monongahela, Pa.
Mississippi, 2,565 m. Itasca L. Minn.
Missouri, 3,047 Rocky Mts. Mont.
Arkansas, 2,000 m. Rocky Mts. Colo.
Miss., Mo. and Mad. Rivers, 3,900
Mad. 280 m. Rocky Mts. Mont.
Lake Lauricocha
Lake Itasca
Atlantic Ocean
Caribbean Sea
Gulf of Mexico
Arctic Ocean
Pacific Ocean
Chesapeake Bay
Delaware Bay
Hudson Bay
Gulf of California
Behring Sea

COMPARATIVE HEIGHT OF MOUNTAINS IN FEET

LENGTH OF IMPORTANT RIVERS, THEIR SOURCE AND MOUTH

INDEX TO VOLUME IV

A star (*) indicates an illustration

A

Abo, 38.
Abraham, in Egypt, 202-3.
Absalom, tomb of, *275.
Abusina, Roman outpost, 58.
Abyssinia, customs and superstitions, 180-84; facts about, 376.
Acadia, 319.
Achilles, 62.
Acropolis, in Athens, *25-6.
Adrar, facts about, 382.
Adrianople, taken by Turks, 49.
Aeolians, 22.
Aesop, 24.
Afghanistan, English in, 95; facts about, 370-71.
Africa, German colonies in, 103, 381, 386; journey through, *160-210; customs and ceremonials in, 171-84; the Sahara and its inhabitants, 185-93; facts about, 376-82.
"African Limited", *167.
Agadir incident, 108.
Agamemnon, 20.
Aggstein, 60.
Agincourt, battle of, 11, 86.
Agra, 217, *218.
Agricola, 69.
Agriculture, in Canada, *323, 324; in China, *261; in Japan, 243; in Mexico, 302; in the Philippines, 248, 249.
Aguku, King of, 180.
Ainos, 233-34.
Aix-la-Chapelle, 101.
Alaska, facts about, 342.
Alabaster Mosque, *201.
Albania, 52; costumes in, *45.
Albert, Prince-Consort, 94.
Albert Nyanza, Lake, 165.
Alberta, facts about, 343.
Alcazar, 156.
Alexander the Great, 28, 191.
Alexandria, 161.
Alfred the Great, 75, *76, 78.
Algeria, facts about, 378-79.
Alhambra, 159.
Allenby, Edmund, 286.
Alpheus, 137.
Alpine herdsmen, 153.
Alpine horn, *154.
Alps, 110, 114-15, 153.
Alsace, taken by Prussia, 106-7.
Altstatten, 115.
Alva, Duke of, 124.
Amalfi Drive, 135, *136.
Amazon River, 335.
Amsterdam, 125, 127.
Amundsen, Roald, 140.
Ancesters, reverence of, 234, 245, 261, 263, 270.
Andaman Islands, facts about, 372.
Andersen, Hans Christian, 139.
Andes Mountains, *330.
Andorra, facts about, 359.
Angles, the, 72.
Anglo-Japanese Alliance, 108.
Anglo-Saxons, in England, 72.
Angola, facts about, 382.
Anhalt, facts about, 361.
Animals, wild, in Africa, *167-68, *187, 190-91; sacred, 205, 217; in zoo, Uruguay, 332.
Anne, of Bohemia, 10.
Anne, Queen, 94.
Antarctic current, 329.
Antarctic explorers, 387.
Antarctic Regions, facts about, 387.
Antigonus, 28.
Antitoxin, 148.
Antofagasta, *327, 330, *331.
Antonia, Pilate's residence, 277.
Antwerp, 120, 125, 128.
Arabia, 191-92; facts about, 375.
Arabs, 162.
Arapahoe Indians, 310.
Architecture, in Belgium, *120, 128; in Germany, 119; in Greece, 24; in the Holy Land, 281; in India, 212, 213, 216, 217; in Italy, 131-37; Japanese, 243; Mexican, *307.
Arctic explorers, 387.
Arctic Regions, facts about, 387.
Ardennes, the, 120.
Arethusa, 137.
Argentina, 332; facts about, 352.
Argonne Forest, 151.
Arizona, petrified forest of, 191.
Armada, 93.
Art, Egyptian, 199; Greek, 24-6, 29; Italian, 130-37; Japanese, 238; new birth of, 50; of the desert, 191.
Asama-yama, 240.
Ashanti, King of, 179.
Asia, facts about, 370-75.
Assuan dam, 198, *209, 210.
Astrakhan, 35.
Assyria, attacks Egypt, 205, 208.
Athena, temple of, 26, 137.
Athenians, 24; 27.
Athens, 44; history of, 22, *25-7; stadium at, *29.
Athletics, Greek, 19.
Attica, 22.
Augsburg, 102.
Augustus, Emperor, 110.
Aurigha, 189.
Austerlitz, 13.
Australasia, facts about, 383-86.
Australia, facts about, 383-84.
Austria, history of, 9-12, 357-58; Danube region of, 60; dominates German Confederation, 105-6; defeated by Prussia, 105-6; takes Bosnia and Herzegovina, 108; opens World War, 109; facts about, 357-58.
Aztecs, 298-9, 300, 309.

B

Baalbek, 287.
Bad Way, 114.
Baden, 102; facts about, 360.
Baden-Baden, Grand Duke of, 116.
Bagobos, *247, *251.
Bahamas, facts about, 351.
Bahia, 335.
Bajazet, 62.
Baku, 35.
Baldwin of Flanders, 48-9.
Balkan Peninsula, geography of, 43; history of, 44-52; first Balkan War, *51.
Bambaras, 177.
Bamboo, *331.
Bannockburn, battle of, 83.
Barbados, facts about, 351.
Barbarossa, 101, 110.
Barcelona, 159.
Barons, English, 87.
Bartimaeus, 286.
Basel, 116.
Basil II, 48.
Basques, 151.
Basutoland, facts about, 380.
Batavia, 125.
Batavian Republic, 127.
Batavians, 122.
Baths of Hercules, 60.
Bavaria, at Blenheim, 57; Danube in, 57-8; facts about, 360.
Bazaine, Marshall A. F., *301.
Bazars, 212, 287.
Bechuanaland, facts about, 381.
Bede, The Venerable, 74, 75.
Bedouins, 197, 210.
Beggars, 124; Chinese, *270; Indian, 231; in Madrid, 156.
Beira, 163.
Beirut, 288.
Belgae, the, 122.
Belgian Congo, 165; facts about, 382.
Belgium, in World War, 109; geography of, 120, 358; early history of, 122-27, 358; in modern times, 127-28, 358; possessions of, 382; facts about, 358.
Belisarius, General, 47.
Bell, Liberty, of Mexico, *307.
Bells, King of, 34, *38.
Benares, temples at, 216, *217.
Benedictine monastery, 60.
Berbers, 188-89.
Bergson, Henri, 145.
Berlin, 96, 99.
Bermuda, facts about, 351.
Berne, costumes in, *153.
Berthold, Black, 117.
Bethany, 284.
Bethlehem, 274, *282.
Beuron, 54.
Bhutan, facts about, 375.
Bible, Wyclif's, 85.
Bida, puppet show at, *179.
Bingen on the Rhine, *113.
Birds, in Africa, 188; in China, *259; in India, 215, 216.
Birmingham, 139.
Bishops, under Charlemagne, 122.
Bismarck, monument of, 96; urges Kiel Canal, 99; starts German colonization, 103; makes Prussia an Empire, 105-7; wars due to, 106.
Bismarck Archipelago, 104; facts about, 386.
Biwa, Lake, 241.
Black death, 84.
Black Forest, 53-4, 102, 112, 116.
Black Monk, 117.
Black Prince, 84, 85.
Blacksmith shop, Chinese, *262.
Blenheim, battle of, 57.
"Blood and Iron" wars, 105-7.
Blue Grotto, 135.
Bluecoat School, 90.
Boadicea, Queen, 69.
Boats, in China, *269, 270.
Boer War, 95, 169.
Boetia, 22, 27.
Bogota, 327.
Bohemia, history of, 9-13; products of, 13.
Bois de Boulogne, 146, 148.
Bojundrum, 59.
Bokhara, facts about, 367.
Boleyn, Anne, 89.
Bolivia, 330; facts about, 353.
Bombay, 211.
Bonn, 101.
Book of Common Prayer, 89.
Book of the Dead, 200.
Book trade, 100, 127.
Books, Chinese, 265, 266; Egyptian, 200-1.
Borneo, British, facts about, 385.
Bosnia, 47, 52; costumes in, *45; taken by Austria, 108.
Bosphorus, raided, 48.
Bosworth Field, battle of, 87.
Boulevards of Paris, *145.
Boxer rising, 267.
Brabant, Dukes of, 122.
Brahmans, 216, 220, 224.
Brazil, 332-35; centennial exposition in, *334, 335; facts about, 353.
Bremen, 99; facts about, 361.
Breslau, 99-100.
Bricklayers, Chinese, *262.
Bridge, across the Zambesi, 166; across the Kafue, 166, 168; of the Evil Spirits, *269.
British Columbia, 319, 325; salmon fishing in, *323; facts about, 343-44.

British East Africa, 165; facts about, 380.
British East Indies, facts about, 385.
British Empire, facts about, 361-63.
British Guiana, 166; facts about, 356.
British Honduras, facts about, 350.
British Museum, 72, 298.
Brotherhood of Triana, 156, *158.
Bruce, Robert, 83.
Bruges, 122, *123, 128.
Brunelleschi, F., 134.
Brunswick, facts about, 361.
Brussels, 122, 124.
Buda-Pesth, 14.
Buddha, image of, 245.
Buddhists, in China, 264-65; in India, 234; in Korea, 234.
Buenos Aires, *326, 332.
Bukarest, 62.
Bulawayo, 166.
Bulgaria, history of, 44, 47, 48, 52, 109, 358; costumes in, *45, *61; facts about, 358-59.
Bull fights, 156, **310, 314.
Bülow, F. W. von, 108.
Bunda, 173.
Burgundy, Dukes of, 123.
Burleigh, Walter, 92.
Burma, facts about, 374.
Busaco, 159.
Byzantium, 27, 44.

C

Ca'd'Oro Palace, 136.
Cabot, John, in Canada, 316-17.
Cabot, Sebastian, 317.
Cadiz, founded, 20.
Caedmon, 74, 75.
Caesar, Julius, in Britain, 67.
Cafes, Arab, *204; Parisian, *145.
Cairo, *161, 169, 210.
Calais, siege of, 84; lost, 92.
Calf, Golden, 205.
Callao, 329.
Calvary, Mount, 277.
Cambridge University, founded, 86.
Cambyses, 187.
Cameroon, facts about, 381.
Campo Santo, at Genoa, 132, *133; in Mexico, 314; at Pisa, 133.
Canada, history of, 316-19, 343; population of, 319, 343; principal points of interest in, 319-25; industries of, *323, 325, 343; government of, 324, 343; Indians in, 324; facts about, 343-49.
Canals, Kiel, 99; in Belgium and The Netherlands, 120, *121, 123; Panama Canal, 306, 327; in Canada, 320.
Canary Islands, facts about, 382.
Candia, 137.
Cannibals, 172.
Canton, 270.
Canton River, scene on, *269.
Canute, King, 79.
Cape to Cairo Railway, *160-69.
Cape Town, 162.
Cape Verde Islands, facts about, 382.
Capri, 135.
Caracas, 335.
Caractacus, 69.
Caravans, 185, *186, 264.
Carinthia, 52.
Carlotta, Empress, 306.
Carlyle, Thomas, 145.
Carniola, 52.
Caroline Islands, facts about, 386.
Carpathian Mountains, 14; wayside shrine in, *16.
Carpenters, Chinese, *262.
Carthage, 22.
Cartier, Jacques, 317.
Caruso, H., 135.
Caspian Sea, 191.
Caste, in India, 216, 219-21.
Castles on the Rhine, 117.
Catacombs, in Rome, 134-35.
Cathedrals, Cologne, 101, *118; Florence, *130, 133; Mexico City, *307; Milan, *130, 131; Notre Dame, Paris, 146, 150; Passau, 59; Pisa, 132; cathedrals in Russia, 32, 34; Seville, 131; Strasbourg, 101; Trondhjen, 140; Ulm, 56. *See also* Churches; Mosques.
Catherine of Aragon, 87-9.
Cattaro, 14.
Cattle, in Switzerland, 153, *154, *155.
Cave dwellings, 189-90.
Cave men, 66.
Cedars of Lebanon, 20, 286, 287-88.
Celts, in the Low Countries, 122.
Central America, 297, *315, 306; Spaniards in, 299, 302; facts about, 348.
Cerro, El, Montevideo, 332.
Cerro Santa Lucia, El, 332.
Cervantes, S., 308.
Ceylon, facts about, 372.
Cha-f-Ra, 202.
Chaeronea, battle of, 28.
Chancellor, Richard, 90.
Channel Islands, facts about, 363.
Chapultepec, 306; taken, 304-5; palace of, *307.
Charenton, 151.
Charlemagne, 122.
Charles the Bold, 123 .
Charles II, 318 .
Charles V, 59, 124, 298, 299.
Charpentier, Gustave, 147.
Charters, gained by barons, 87; Great Charter, 123.
Chateau-Thierry, 151.
Chaucer, 85.
Chemulpo, 238.
Child-life, Chinese, 270; Eskimo, 292, *294; Indian, 215; Japanese, *239, 243, 245; in Mexico, 313.
Chile, 329-30, *333; facts about, 354.
China, German colonies in, 104; invades Japan, 236; war with Japan, 237; population of, 259, 371; language in, 260; soil in, 260-61; history of, 261-67, 272, 371; influence of Confucius on, 263; Great Wall of, 263-64; Buddhist religion in, 264; Golden Age of, 265; principal cities of, 269-70, 371; customs in, 270-72; facts about, 371.
Chinchilla, *328.
Chinese, in the Phillippines, 246.
Chinese Republic, 259-72; hymn of, 147.
Chopin, Frederic F., tomb of, 148.
Christ, *see* Jesus Christ.
Christiania, 142.
Christianity, *see* Regilion.
Christmas, in Bethlehem, *282; in Mexico, 312; in Switzerland, 154.
Chu-fu, 202.
Churches, Abyssinian, *181, 184; of the Holy Sepulcher, 274; Russian, 32, 34; Sacre Coeur, 148; St. Mark's, *136; St. Peter, 130; St. Sophia, *46; Santa Catorina, 137. *See also* Cathedrals; Mosques.
Cicero, 137.
Cintra, 159.
Cleopatra, 162, 210 .
Cleopatra's Needle, 203.
Coalfields at Wankie, 166.
Coblenz, 101.
Cocoa, 335.
Cocos Islands, facts about, 372.
Coffin making, *262.
Cogolato, 132.
Cologne, 101, 117, *118, 119.
Colombia, 327; facts about, 354.
Colonies, Belgian, 165, 382; Dutch, 125, 129, 351, 356, 367, 387; English, 94, 95, 318, 343-47, 350, 351, 356, 363-64, 371-72, 377-78, 380-81, 335, 386; French, 317, 318, 351, 360, 375, 378-80, 385-86; German, 103, 381, 386; Italian, 381; Jewish, 288; Portuguese, 266, 270, 366, 381-82; Spanish, 298-303, 368, 382; of United States, 340-42, 351.
Colosseum, 134.
Columbia, 319.
Columbus, Christopher, 132, 297; monument to, *131.
Commandments, Ten, 205.
Compass, 263.
Confucius, 263.
Congo Free State, 163, 165.
Constance, 115, 116.
Constance, Lake of, 115.
Constantine, founds Constantinople, 44.
Constantine XI, 49.
Constantinople, *43, 44, *46; destruction of, 48; taken by Turks, 49.
Co-operative societies, 139.
Copenhagen, 139.
Cordova, 159; treaty of, 303.
Corinth, *23, 28.
Cormorants, *261.
Cornwall, 69.
Coronatjon stone, 83, 94.
Corsica, 130.
Cortes, Hernan, 300-2, *301, 307.
Costa Rica, facts about, 349.
Costumes, Abyssinian, *181, 182, *183, 191; African, 171-72, *174; Albanian, *45; Bavarian, 59; Bosnian, *45; Bulgarian, *45; Chinese, *270, *271; Dutch, 121, *129; English, 85; Eskimo, *294-97; German, 103; Greek, *45; in India, *222-24, 229; Japanese, *242, 243; Jewish, *279; Macedonian, *45; Mexican, 308-09, *313; Montenegran, *45; Norwegian, *142; Philippine, *247, *251, 252, *253, *255, 256, 258; Russian, *31; Ruthenian, *16; Serbian, *45; Spanish, *157; Swedish, 138, *140, *141, *142; Swiss, *153; Turkish, *45.
Cotton Grotto, 277.
Courtship, *see* Marriage customs.
Coypu, *328.
Cracow, salt mines at, 13.
Cranmer, Archbishop Thomas, 89.
Crawford, Marion, 135.
Cressy, battle of, 84.
Crete, 20, 49, facts about, 369.
Crimean War, 95.
Croatia, 52.
Cromwell, Thomas, 89.
Crusades and Crusaders, 48, 54, *278, 281.
Cuba, 297, 298; facts about, 350. Curacao, facts about, 356.
Curie, Madame, 143.
Customs, Abyssinian, 180-84; 191; African, 171-79; Chinese, 259, 261, 270-72; Dutch, 129; Eskimo, 291; Finnish, *37; Icelandic, 139; in India, 212, 219, *223-32; Lapp, *41; Mexican, 309-14; Philippine, *246; Russian, *39-40; Ruthenian, *16-8; Slavonic, 18; Spanish, 156, *158; Swedish, 138, 140; Swiss, 115, 153-54, *155.
Czecho-Slovakia, 9-10, 13; facts about, 365.

D

Dahomey, 175; facts about, 379.
Dalicarlia, *138, 140, *141.
Dalmatia, 14, 52.
Damascus, 287.
Damascus-Mecca Railway, 287.
Dances and dancers, English, 88; Eskimo, 291; Indian, 231-32*; Mexican, 314; Philippine, 249, *259; Swedish, *138, 140.
Dandolo, Doge, 137.
Dane's tax, 11.
Danes, invade England, 75, 79.
Dante, 134.
Danube River, traffic on, 12-3; its scenery and history, 53-62, 102; map of, *53.
Danzig, facts about, 367.
Darnley, Henry, 92.
Dawson City, 325.
Dawson trail, 321.
Dead, Book of the, 200; Feast of the, 245. *See also* Funeral customs.
Dead Sea, 282, 284.
Debra Libanos, 184.
Delcasse, T., 108.
Delhi, *214, 217.
Demosthenes, 28.
Dendera, temple at, *199.
Denmark, 139; war with Prussia, 105; facts about, 359.
Dervishes, 169, *207.
Deserts, Sahara, 185-90; Libyan, 185-87, 188; cause of, 190; animal and plant life in, 190-91; extent of, 192; mirages on, *192, 193; Tunghwan, 264.
Diabuts, 245.
Diamond cutting, 127.
Diaz, Porfirio, president of Mexico, 306.
Difalo, 179.
Diseases, Causes learned, 148; sleeping sickness, 168-69; superstition regarding, 175, *178; in Abyssinia, 182; among Eskimos, 296.
Doge's Palace, Venice, *135, 136.
Dogras, dress of the, *229.
Dolls, Japanese, 245.
Dome of the Rock, *278, 281.
Domesday Book, 82.
Dominican Republic, facts about, 351.
Don Quixote, 308.
Donaueschingen, 54.
Donauworth, 57.
Dorchester, England, *77 .
Dorians, 22, 27.
Dornbirn, 115.
Dortmund, 117.
Dothan, Vale of, 286.
Drake, Sir Francis, 93.
Drama, Hindu, 229.
Dresden, 99.
Dress, *see* Costumes.
Druids, 69.
Dufferin Terrace, *320.
Duomo, Florence, 134.
Durrenstein, castle of, 60.
Dusseldorf, 119.
Dutch, The, 129, 236. *See also* The Netherlands.
Dutch East Indies, 129; facts about, 385.
Dutch Guiana, facts about, 356.
Dutch West Indies, facts about, 351.
Dykes, in Leyden, 124; at the Hague, 127.

E

Earth, physical features of, 337.
East India Company, 125.
East Indies, British, 385; Dutch, 129, 385.
Easter, in Hungary, 18; in Ruthenia, 18; in Switzerland, *155.
Ecce Homo Arch, 277, 281.
Ecuador, 327, facts about, 354.
Edgar, the Peaceful King, 79.
Edinburgh, founding of, 74.
Edo, 176.
Education, under Alfred the Great, 78; in Belgium, 122; in Brazil, 335; in China, 265, 268, *271, 272; in Germany, 103; in Japan, 237; in Mexico, 308, 314; in Paris, 143.
Edward, the Confessor, 79-81.
Edward I, 82-3.
Edward II, 83.
Edward III, 83-4.
Edward IV, 86.
Edward VI, 89-91.
Edward VII, 94-5 .
Edwin, King of Northumbria, 74.
Egbert, King of England, 72.
Egypt, 23; Cairo, *161; Cape to Cairo, Railway in, 161-62; Kitchener in, 169; Romans in, 194; pyramids of, 194, *196-98; *200-202; religion in, 198, 205; relics of early, 198, 201; picture language of, 199; books found in, 200-1; kings of, 202, 203; Sphinx, 202; Abraham in, 202; Joseph in, 203; Moses in, 205; priests in, 205; history of, 208, 377; modern Egypt, 210; facts about, 377.
Ekoi, 175, *178.
El Aksa, mosque of, 281.
El Misto, Harvard observatories at, 331.
Elbe River, 99.
Elbruz, Mount, 35.
Elchingen, battle of, 56.
Eleanor, Queen, 82-3.
Elizabeth, Queen, 92-3, 125, 317.
Encyclopaedias, Chinese, 265, 266.
Engines, 161, 166-8.
England, *see* Great Britain.
Enns, 11.
Epaminondas, 28.
Ephesus, founded, 22; temple of, 136.
Erasmus, 50.
Eritrea, facts about, 381.
Eskimos, habits and customs of, 290-292, 295, 296; costumes of, 292-95; religion of, 295-96.
Essen, 101.
Esthonia, 38.
Ethelread, the Unready, 79.
Etna, Mount, 137.
Eton, founded, 86.
Europe, facts about, 357-69.
"Evangeline," 319.
Evil eye, *182, 184, 222, 313, 314.
Excavations in Greece, 20.
Exploration, by Japanese, 236; in China, 265; by Cortes, 298-301, Arctic, 387; Antarctic, 387.

F

Fakir, 231.
Falkland Islands, fact about, 356.
Fatting House, 173.
Feasts and festivals, Eskimo, 296; Hindu, 228; in the Holy Land, *285; Japanese, 234, 245; Mexican, 309, 312, 314, Mohammedan, 229-30*; Philippine, 253, 256. *See also* Holidays; Marriage customs.
February-fill-dyke, 112.
Feldkirch, 115.
Ferdinand, Arch Duke, 109.
Ferdinand II, 57.
Fernando Po, facts about, 382.
Feudal system, 81, 122.
Fiestas, 314.
Fiji Islands, facts about, 385.
Finland, 37-8; folk-runes in, *37; facts about, 367.
Fisheries and fishing, in Canada, *323; in China, *259; in Japan, 243; in Newfoundland, 327.
Fiume, 14.
Flanders, Earls of, 122.
Flies, tsetse, 168-69.
Florence, *130, 133; Giotto's Tower in, *131.
Florentine Forum, 133.
Flowers, in China, 268; in Japan, 238, 240; in Mexico, 309, 314. *See also* Plants.
Folk songs, Finnish, *37; Norwegian, 140.
Foot binding, 270, 272.
Footwear, Japanese, 243.
Formosa, 233, 237; facts about, 375.
Forums, Florentine, 133; Roman, *130, 134.
Forests, petrified, 191; as life givers, 193; in Mexico, 304; Canadian, 321, *323, 325.
France, 108; battle of Cressey, 84; siege of Calais, 84; battle of Poitiers, 84; battle of Agincourt, 86; Calais regained, 92; Franco-Prussian war, 106-7; in World War, 109; in the Netherlands, 127; battle of Waterloo, *126, 127; Paris, 143-51; bird's-eye view of, 151; in Mexico, *301, *305-6; in Canada, 317-19; facts about, 359-60.
France, possesions of, facts about, 351, 360, 375, 378-80, 385-86.
Francis Joseph I, 12.
Francis Joseph II, 106.
Franciscan monks, 281.
Franco-Prussian War, 106-7.
Frankfort, 117; Diet of, 105; annexed by Prussia, 105.
Franks, The, 122.
Franz Josef Land, facts about, 387.
Frederick the Great, 97, 100.
French Equatorial Africa, facts about, 379.
French Guiana, facts about, 356, 379.
French Indo China, facts about, 375.
French Revolution, 9, 143.
French Sudan, facts about, 379.
Friesland, 122.
Frisians, 122 .
Frontenac, Chateau, *320.
Fuji-yama, 238-40, 245.
Funeral customs, Eskimo, *296; Hindu, 226-27; Jewish, *277; Mexican, 314; Mohammedan, 227; Philippine, *250, *251, 254.
Fur trade, 318.
Furniture, Japanese, 243.
Furs, *328.

G

Galati, 62.
Galicia, 10, 13.
Galilee, Sea of, 284, 287.
Galileo, 133.
Gambia, facts about, 380.
Games, Eskimo, *294; Swiss, *152.
Ganges River, 228.
Gannawarri, 172.
Gardening, Dutch, 127.
Gascony, 151.
Genoa, *131-32.
Genoese, 49.
George III, 94.
George V, 95.
Georgia, 38.
Gerkua tribe, *173.
German Confederation, 105-7.
Germany, races composing, 16; Ferdinand II in, 57; in the Danube region, 53-62; history of, 96-109; along the Rhine, 110-19; facts about, 360-61.
Gethsemane, garden of, *276, 281.
Ghent, 122, 123, 124, 125, 127.

Ghosts, *178.
Gibralter, facts about, 363.
Gilbert, Sir Humphrey ,317.
Giotto's Tower, *131, 134.
Goethe, J. W., 96.
Gold Coast, 171, 176, 177; facts about, 382.
Goldsmiths, of Bruge, 123.
Goodwin, Earl of, 79, 81.
Gordon, General C. G., 162, 169, 269.
Government, 339; in Canada, 321, 324; in China, 268, 272; in Japan, 234; in Mexico, *300, 302, 304, 308; in the Philippines, 249, 258; in Switzerland, 115, *152, 154.
Granada, 159.
Gray Leaguers, 114.
Great Britain, 108, Dane's tax in, 11; prehistoric, 64-7; Romans in, 67-71; founding of England, 71-2; early kings of, 72-82; history of middle period, 82-94; in modern times, 63, 94-5; in World War, 109; in Africa, 165, 169; in India, 217; in Canada, 317-18, 324; facts about, 361-62.
Great Britain, possessions of, facts about, 343-47, 350, 351, 356, 363-64, 371-72, 377-78, 380-81, 385, 386.
Great Lakes, 320.
Great Wall of China, 263-64, 265.
Greece, 44, 52; history of, 19-29; art in, 24-6; costumes in, *45; facts about, 364.
Greenland, 292, *293, 295; facts about, 387.
Gregory, Pope, 73-4.
Grey, Lady Jane, 91.
Grisons, The, 114.
Guadelope, facts about, 351.
Guam, facts about, 342.
Guanajuato, 303.
Guatemala, facts about, 348.
Guatemotzin, 313.
Guelderland, 122.
Guianas, 335, facts about, 356.
Gunpowder, 263; first use of, 84; invented, 117.
Gustavus Adolphus, 10, 57.
Gutenburg, J., 117.

H

Haarlem, siege of, 124.
Hainault, Lords of, 122.
Hairdressing, 272; Chinese, 272; Eskimo, 295.
Haiti, facts about, 350-51.
Halifax, founded, 319.
Hamburg, 99; facts about, 361.
Hammerfest, 140.
Hampton Court, 89.
Hankow, 268.
Hanover, Kingdom of, 105.
Hanseatic League, 123.
Hapsburgs, House of, 9, 11, 115.
Haram Esh Sheriff, 281.
Harold, King, *80-1.
Hastings, battle of, 81.
Hats, Panama, 327-29.
Hatshep-su, Queen, 203.
Hausas, 171, 173, 175, 177.
Hawaii, facts about, 341.
Hawkins, Sir John, 93.
Head-hunters, 171-72, 175, 249, *250-52, 255, *257.
Heidelberg, *118.
Helsingfors, 38.
Hemispheres, 337, 388-91.
Henry I, 82.
Henry II, 82.
Henry III, tomb of, 82.
Henry IV, 85-6.
Henry V, 11, 86.
Henry VI, 86.
Henry VII, 87.
Henry VIII, 87-9, 92.
Heraclius, Emperor, 47.
Herculaneum, 135.
Hermitage, Petrograd, 32.
Hermon, Mount, 287.
Hero, 161.
Herod, 280.
Herodotus, 27, 208.
Herzegovina, 52, 108.
Hesse, facts about, 360.
Hezekiah, Pool of, 276.
Hidalgo, Miguel, 302-3.
Hideyoshi, 236.
Hindus, 217, 224; religion of, 213, 216, 220, *221, 223, 228; marriage of, *224-26.
Hochstad, battleground of, 57.
Hofer, Andreas, monument of, 10.
Hohenzollern, castle of Prince, 56.
Holidays, in Abyssinia, 184; in India, 224; in Japan, 238; in Mexico, 309, 312; in Sweden, 140; in Switzerland, 154.
Holland, 127; Counts of, 122; province of, 122. See also The Netherlands.
Holmkollen, mountain, 142.
Holstein, Province of, 105-6.
Holy Sepulcher, Church of the, 274, *275, *276-77.
Holy Wars, see Crusades.
Homer, 19, 180.
Honduras, facts about, 349.
Hong Kong, 270; facts about, 371.
Horn, Alpine, *154.
Horn, Cape, 332.
"Hornussen", 151.
Houseboats, in China, *269, 270.
Houses, in Chile, *333; Eskimo, *290; in India, 216; Japanese, 243; Mexican, *309; Philippine, 258.
Hudson, Henry, discoveries of, 318.
Hudson Bay Company, 318, 319.
Hughes, Charles E., *334, 335.
Hungary, history of, 11-2, 16, 358; Easter in, 18; facts about, 358.
Hunters, Munchi, 176; Nigerian, *170; Philippine, 248.
Hunyadi, John, 11, 49.
Huss, John, 10, 49, 116.
Hwang-ho, 260.
Hyksos, 203.

I

Ibo, 180.
Iceland, 139.
Ictinos, 26.
Ifugaoes, *247, *250, 253, 257.
Igorots, 254-55*.
Ikenga, 175.
Ikons, in Russia, 34.
"Iliad", 20.
Images worshipped, 175.
Incas, 329.
Incense factory, *262.
India, 211; English in, 95; races in, 212, 222, bazaars of, 212; temples and mosques in, 213, *214, 216, *217; railways in, 213, 219; characteristics of inhabitants of, 215; religion in, 216, 220; population of, 217, 371; caste in, 219; customs in, 222-30; superstitions in, 230-31; fakirs in, 231; dancers in, 231-32; facts about, 371-72.
Indians, Arapaho, 308; Canadian, 317, 318, 321, 324; Iroquois, 308, 318; Mexican, 308-14; South American, 330. See also India.
Indonesians, 246.
Industries, in Belgium, 127; Canadian, *323, 325; in China, 261, *262, 263, 268; in Germany, 99-102; in Japan, 237, 243; in The Netherlands, 123, 127; in Spain, 159; in Switzerland, 115, 116.
Innsbruck, 10.
Inquisition, Spanish, 300, 303.
Invalides, Hotel des, 150.
Ionians, 22, 23.
Ireland, religion in, 78, 363; history of, 85, 89, 363; facts about, 363.
Irkutsk, 36.
Iroquois Indians, 308, 318.
Irrigation, in China, *262; in Hungary, 14; in Egypt, *206; in the Philippines, 249.
Irving, Washington, 159.
Ishmaelites, 286.
Isidus, 60.
Islands, in Eastern Hemisphere, 388; in Western Hemisphere, 390.
Isle of Man, facts about, 363.
Israelites, in Egypt, 203.
Istria, 52.
Italy, 109; treaty with Prussia, 105; art in, 130; history of, 130-31, 364; principal cities in, 131-37; facts about, 364.
Italy, possessions of, facts about, 381.
Ivory Coast, facts about, 379.

J

Jacob's Well, 286.
Jaffa, 275.
Jains, 213, 220, *223.
Jama Masjid, Delhi, *214.
Jamaica, facts about, 351.
James I, of England, 93-4.
James I, of Scotland, 85.
James IV, of Scotland, 87.
James VI, of Scotland, 92. See also James I, of England.
Janissaries, 49.
Japan, forms alliance with Great Britain, 108; history of, 233-37, 372-73; religion in, 234, 245, 373; Empire of, *235; modern, 237; wars of, 237; flowers in, 238; volcanoes in, 238-40; principal cities of, 240-43, 245, 373; industries of, 243, 373; costumes and houses, 243; child-life in, 243-45; facts about, 372-73.
Japan, mandatories of, facts about, 386.
Java, 125.
Jeanne d'Arc, 86, 147.
Jehan, Shah, 214, 217, 218.
Jena, 100.
Jenghiz, Khan, 265,
Jericho, 284, 286.
Jerusalem, 273; taken by Saracens, 48; taken by Turks, 48; description of, 274-86.
Jesus Christ, homeland of, 273-88; relics of, 277, 281; birthplace of, *282-84.
Jewelry, of early Britain, 66, 72; Egyptian, 205.
Jews, 273; wailing place of the, *276, *280; customs of, *279.
Jimmu, Emperor, 234, 240.
Jingo, Empress, 234, 240.
Joan of Arc, 86, 147.
John the Baptist, 284, 286; statue of, 147.
Joppa Gate, 274.
Jordan, river, *273, 284, 287.
Jorullo, 302.
Joseph, husband of Mary, 282.
Joseph, son of Jacob, 286; in Egypt, 203.
Juarez, President B. P., 305-6.
Judea, 282.
Jugo-Slavia, 52; facts about, 369.
Juju, *174, 176.
Jukin tribe, *172.
Julian the Apostate, *46.
Jungfrau, 154.
Jungle, in South America, *331.
Justinian, Emperor, 47, 281.
Jutes, 72.

K

Kalingas, *255.
Kamakura, 245.
Karnak, 205.
Kazan Defile, 62.
Keddara, 172.
Kenneth, King of Scotland, 79.
Kenya, facts about, 380.
Kermesa, 153.
Khalifa, 169.
Khartoum, 165, 169.
Khiva, facts about, 367.
Kief, 34-5.
Kiel, 99; canal, 31, 108.
Kimona, 243.
King's College, founded, 86.
Kioto, 243.
Kitchener, Lord Horatio H., 162, 169.
Kite-flying, 245.
Kiuprili, family of, 52.
Kiuskiu, Island of, 240.
Klampenborg, Forest of, 139.
Klondike, 325.
Kobe, 241, 245.
Kolguev, facts about, 387.
Korea, size of, 233, 373; conquered, 234; protectorate in, 237-38; facts about, 373.
Kororofa, 172.
Kossovo, battle of, 49.
Kossuth, Louis, 12.
Kremlin, *30, 34.
Krishna worship, *223.
Kronstadt, 31.
Krupp works, 101.
Kublai Khan, 236, 265.
Kwantung, facts about, 373.
Kyak, *294.

L

Labor and laborers in Japan, 243.
Labrador, facts about, 347.
Labuan, 385.
Lacemakers, in Switzerland, 115.
Lacquer work, 243.
Lakes, in Eastern Hemisphere, 388; in Western Hemisphere, 390.
Lancaster, family of, 86, 87.
Land ownership in Denmark, 139.
Language, 339; Chinese, 260; Egyptian, 199; origin of English, 71; Eskimo, 291; in the Holy Land, 288; in Japan, 245; in Mexico, 308; in South America, 327; in Switzerland, 153.
LaPaz, 330.
Laplace, Pierre S., 148.
Lapland and Laplanders, *41-2; 140.
"Last Judgement," 134.
"Last Supper," 131.
Lauenburg, Duchy of, 105.
Lavoisier, Antoine L., 143, *144.
Laws, of Justinian, 47; origin of, 71; Dane law, 75; on Isle of Man, *88; law making in Switzerland, 115; of the Frisians, 122; Abyssinian, 184.
Lazarus, 282.
Leaning Tower of Pisa, *132, 133.
Lebanon, cedars of, 20, 287-88.
Leeward Islands, facts about, 351.
Leipsig, 100.
Leksand, *141.
Leonardo da Vinci, 131, 133.
Leopard secret society, *178.
Leopold, of Coburg, 127.
Lepanto, battle of, 52.
Letter-writers, *310.
Letvia, 38.
Leyden, siege of, 124.
Liberia, 173; facts about, 377.
Liberty bell of Mexico, 307.
Libraries, Royal Library, Petrograd, 32; National Library, Madrid, 159.
Libyan Desert, 185, 187, 188.
Liechtenstein, facts about, 369.
Liege, 127.
Lilith, 182.
Lima, 329; University of, 329.
Linz, 59.
Lionel, Prince, 85.
Lipize, facts about, 361.
Lisbon, 159.
Lister, Lord Joseph, 148.
Lithuania, 38.
Livingstone, David, 163, 166.
Llewellyn, 82.
Loanda, 163.
Lobengula, King, 165.
Lobito Bay, 163.
Locomotives, 161, 166-68.
Loess, 260-62.
London, in Roman times, 70; burned, 75; Tower of, 82, 86-7, *90, 91.
Longfellow, Henry W., 128, 321.
Lorelei, legend, 112, *113.
Lorenzo de Medici, 50.
Lorraine, taken by Prussia, 106-7.
"Louise," opera, 146-47.
Louvre, 145.
Low Countries, The, 120-29.
Loyalists, 319.
Lubeck, facts about, 361.
Lucerne, Lake, 154.
Ludwig I, 59, 102.
Luther, Martin, 117.
Luxembourg gallery, 147.
Luxemburg, facts about, 361.
Luxor, Temple of, *205, *209.
Luzon, 249.
Lycurgus, 23.
Lyngen, Fjord, 140.
Lyngseidet, 140.
Lyons, 151.

M

Macao, 266, 270; facts about, 371.
Macaroni, 135.
Macedonia, 28, 48; costumes of, *45.
Mack, General Karl, 56.
Mackenzie College, 335.
Madagascar, facts about, 379.
Madeira Islands, facts about, 382.
Madrid, 156, 159.
Magdeburg, 99.
Magyars, 11.
Mahabharat, 229.
Mahdi, 169.
Maiduguri, 176.
Maintz, 101, 117.
Malay States, facts about, 372.
Malays, 234, 246, *251.
Malines, 123.
Malta, facts about, 364.
Mammoths, 36, 66.
Manabi, 327.
Manchu dynasty, 266, 272.
Manetho, 208, 210.
Mangyans, *247, *255.
Manitoba, 319, 324; facts about, 344.
Mannheim, 117; Manibos, *247; Manuel, King, 159.
Manufactures, *See* Industries.
Manuscripts, 78, 265.
Margaret, Maid of Norway, 83.
Margaret of Anjou, 86.
Margaret of Scotland, 87.
Maria Theresa, monument of, *8, 11.
Marianne Islands, facts about, 386.
Marie Antoinette, 54.
Marie Louise, 12.
Mariette, A. F. F., 201.
Marlborough, Duke of, at Blenheim, 57.
Marne, river, 151.
Marquesas Islands, facts about, 386.
Marriage customs, Abyssinian, 182; African, 171-3; Chinese, 270, 271; Eskimo, 291-92; in India, 224-26; Mexican, 312; Philippine, *246, 248, 252, 254, *255, 256, 258; Russian, *39-40*; Ruthenian, *16-7*; Swiss, *153.
Marseilles, 151; Greek colony in, 23.
Marshall Islands, facts about, 386.
Martinique, facts about, 351.
Martyrs, 92, 133, 134, 162.
Mary, daughter of James II, 127.
Mary, Mother of Jesus, 282, 287.
Mary, of Burgundy, 124.
Mary, Queen of Scots, 92.
Mary I, 90-2.
Matabeleland, 162, 165.
Mate, 332.
Matoppo Hills, 165.
Matterhorn, 154.
Mauretania, facts about, 379.
Maurice, 125.
Mauritius, facts about, 380.
Mautern, 60.
Maximilian, Archduke, 301, *305-6, 307.
Maximilian I, Emperor, 124; tomb of, 10.
May Pole, in Sweden, 140.
Mayas, 300, 309.
Mazeppa, tomb of, 62.
Mecca, 258, 273, 281, 287.
Mecklenburg-Schwerin, facts about, 360.
Mecklenburg-Strelitz, facts about, 360.
Medici family, 133.
Medicine men, 176, 177, 256.
Meersburg, 104.
Meistersingers, 56.
Melk, 60.
Men-kau-Ra, 202.
Menes, 202.
Messina, 137.
Metchnikoff, Professor Elias, 148.
Mexican War, 304.
Mexico, explorations and colonization in, 297-302, *315, 348; pastime in, *315; struggle for independence in, 302-4; war with United States, 304; under Maximilian, 305-6; under Diaz, 306; modern improvements in, 306; population of, 308, 348; government of, 308, 348; climate of, 308; races and customs in, 308-14; facts about, 348.
Mexico City, 299; occupation of, 304; National Palace in, *307.
Michelangelo, 133, 134.
Microbes, 143, 148.
Mikado, 234, 235; palace of the, 243; opera, 243.
Milan, *130, 131.
Mills, Water, 128.
Mindanao, *247, 255.
Mindoro, 255.
Mines, in Africa, 166; in Belgium, 127; in Germany, 100; in Mexico, 302; opal, 14; in Russia, 31; salt, 13; in South America, 330.
Ming dynasty, 265-66.
Minotaur, 20.
Miquelon, facts about, 353.
Mirage, *192, 193.
Missionaries, in early Britain, 74; along the Rhine, 110-2; in Japan, 236, 240; in China, 267, 272; among Eskimos, 296; in Mexico, 300, 302.
Misto, El, Harvard observatories at, 329.
Moguls, Empire of the, 211.
Mohacs, victory of, 11.
Mohammed, the prophet, 47-8, 287.
Mohammed II, 50; takes Constantinople, 49.
Mohammedanism, in India, 220; in West Africa, 173.

Mohammedans, 36, 48-50, 183, 258, 273; in prayer, *195; mosques of, 213; marriage among, 226; festivals of, 229-30*; in the Holy Land, 274, 281.
Moldavia, 44.
Molde, 140.
Monaco, facts about, 359-60.
Monasteries, 54, 60; and education, 78; confiscated, 89.
Mongols, 263, 265.
Monkeys, sacred, 217.
Monks, Irish, 116; Franciscan, 281.
Monroe Doctrine, 306.
Montcalm, General L. J., 325.
Montenegro, 52; costumes in, *45; First Balkan War, *51.
Montevideo, 332.
Montezuma, 298-9, 300, 307.
Montmartre, 148, 150.
Montreal, 317, 318, 320, *322.
Moors, Sengalese, 189; in Spain, 156, 159.
Moravia, 10, 13.
More, Sir Thomas, 89.
Morelos, 305.
Morocco, strife over, 108; facts about, 377.
Moros, 246, *251, 256-258.
Morris dancers, *88.
Moscow, *30, 34, 38.
Moselle, 101.
Moses, 205.
Mosques, St. Sophia, *46; Alabaster Mosque, *201; Jama Masjid, Delhi, *214, 217; at Agra, 217; Moro, 258; of Omar, 281; El Aksa, 281.
Motherhood, 146, 148.
Motley, John L., 129.
Mountains, in Eastern Hemisphere, 389; in Western Hemisphere, 391.
Mulhouse, 101, 117.
Mummies, Egyptian, 198, *204, 205.
Munich, 102.
Murillo, Bartolome E., 159.
Musee Plantin, 128.
Museums, British Museum, 72, 298; Egyptian, 201; of Naples, 201.
Music, Eskimo, 291; in India, *225, *232; Philippine, 249, 252.
Mussulmen, 212, 217.
Mycale, victory at, 27.
Mythology, Greek, 24.

N

Naaman, 289.
Nablus, *287-288.
Nagasaki, 240, 241; temple gateway at, *233; becomes Christian, 236; Feast of the Dead at, 245.
Nan-Shan Mountains, 264.
Nanak, 222.
Nanking, 268; Treaty of, 266.
Nansen, Dr. Fridtjof, 295.
Naples, 135.
Napoleon I, 9, 130; battle of Waterloo, *126, 127; tomb of, 148.
Napoleon III, 105; intervenes in Mexico, *301, 305-6.
Natal, facts about, 378.
Nativity, Church of the, 282.
Navy, English, beginning of, 75; meets Spanish Armada, 93.
Navy, German, 99, 107-8.
Nazareth, 286, 287.
Neapolis, 137.
Nebuchadnezzar, 23.
Negritos, 246, 248-49.
Negroes, African, 189; Philippine, 246.
Nelson, Lord Horatio, monument, 91.
Nepal, facts about, 375.
Netherlands, The, 93; along the Rhine, 119; geography of, 120, 365; early history of, 122-27, 365; principal products of, 125-27, 365; in modern times, 127-29; facts about, 365.
Netherlands, possessions of, facts about, 351, 356, 365, 385.
New Batavia, 125.
New Brunswick, 345.
New Caledonia, facts about, 385-86.
New Carthage, 22.
New Guinea, facts about, 386.
New Hebrides, facts about, 386.
New Learning, 50.
New South Wales, facts about, 383.
New Ulm, 56.
New Year's Day, in Switzerland, 154.
New Zealand, facts about, 385.
Newfoundland, 318, 325; claimed for England, 316, 317; facts about, 347.
Ney, Marshall Michel, 56.
Niagara Falls, 321.
Nicaragua, facts about, 349.
Nicobar Islands, facts about, 372.
Nigeria, hunters in, *170; customs in, *171-72*, 173-75*, 178; facts about, 380.
Nijni Novgorod, 35.
Nikko, 240, 245.
Nikopoli, 62.
Nile, The, 162, 165, 194, *201, 202, 210.
Nileometer, *201.
Nitrate, 329.
Nomads, 191.
Norman Conquest, 81.
Normandy, 151; settled by Norsemen, 79; influence of, in England, 79-81.
Norsemen, 75, 79, 142, 316.
North America, facts about, 338-51.
Northwest Passage, quest for, 318.
Northwest Territories, facts about, 347.
Norton, Caroline E., 113.
Norway, 139-42; facts about, 365-66.
Notre Dame Cathedral, Paris, 146, 150.
Nova Scotia, 319; facts about, 345.
Nova Zembla, facts about, 387.
Novgorod the Great, 35.
Nuremberg, 102.
Nutria, *328.
Nyasaland, facts about, 380-81.

O

Oasis, *190.
Obock, facts about, 379.
Oceans, 337.
Oder, The, 99.
Odessa, 35.
Odin, 140.
"Odyssey," 20.
Oil Rivers Protectorate, 172.
Oil wells, in Baku, 35.
Oldenburg, facts about, 360.
Olives, Mount of, *275, 281, 282, 284.
Olympic games, 19, *21, 26, *29.
Omar, Caliph, 281.
Omsk, 36.
Ontario, 320, 321; facts about, 345-46.
Opal mine, 14.
Opera House, in Buenos Aires, 332; in Paris, *146, 150.
Opium, 267.
Oporto, 159.
Orange, Prince of, 124-25.
Orange Free State, facts about, 378.
Osaka, 241-43.
Osmanli, 49.
Ostend, 120.
Ottawa, 321.
Ottoman Turks, *See* Turks.
Otumba, battle of, *301.
Outlines of the World, 336-87.
Ovid, 62.
Oxen, in Africa, 162; in Japan, *244; in Spain, 156.
Oxygen, discovered, 143.

P

Paganini, Nicolo, 132.
Paganism, *See* Religion.
Pageantry, age of, 87.
Palawan, 248.
Palazzo Vecchio, *133.
Palermo, 137.
Palestine, 191, 275-90; facts about, 374-75.
Palmer the Younger, 136.
Panama, Isthmus of, 297, 306; facts about, 349-50.
Panama Canal, 306, 327.
Panama hat, 327-29.
Pantheon, 147, 150.
Panther, ship, 108.
Paper mills, 325.
Papyri, 200-1.
Para, 335.
"Paradise," by Tintoretto, 136.
Paraguay, 332; facts about, 354.
Pare, Ambroise, 145.
Pariahs, 216.
Paris, scientists of, 143-45, 147-49*; points of interest in, 145-51.
Parks, Bois de Boulogne, 146, 148; in South America, 332; in Tokyo, *239.
Parliament, Canadian, *316, 321, 324; English, *63, 92; Swiss, *152; Vienna, 8.
Parr, Queen Catherine, 92.
Parrots, in India, 216.
Parsees, 222, *229.
Parthenon, *24-6.
Pascal, Blaise, 145.
Passau, 59.
Passover, *287.
Pasteur, Louis, 143, 147-48, *149.
Pax Britannica, 217.
Peasants, Bavarian, 58-9; Bulgarian, *61; revolt of English, 85; German, 102-3; in India, 215-16; Russian, 31; Swiss, 114-16.
Peking, 265, 267, 268.
Pena Palace, 159.
Peons, 308.
Pere la Chaise, cemetery of, 148.
Pericles, 26.
Pernambuco, 335.
Perry, Captain Matthew G., 237.
Persia, 191; facts about, 373-74.
Persians, annex Tyre, 23; destroy Athens, 26; battle of Plataea, 26-7; driven from Greece, 27; war with Heraclius, 47; in Egypt, 208; in India, 224.
Peru, *329; facts about, 355.
Peter the Great, *33-4.
Petrograd, 31-4, 38.
Petroleum, *See* Oil.
Pharaohs, *197, 198, 201, 203.
Phidias, 26.
Philip of Macedonia, 28.
Philip I, of Spain, 124.
Philip II, of Spain, 91-3, 124, 125.
Philippa, Queen, 83-5.
Philippine Islands, natives and customs, 246-58; facts about, 341-42.
Phoenicians, 20-3, 27, 137, 140.
Picts, 70-1.
Pictures, *See* Art.
Pigeons, 137.
Pilate, 277.
Pinaing, 252.
Pindar, 137.

Pirates, Japanese, 236.
Pisa, 132-33; Baptistery at, *132.
Pizarro, 329.
Plantin, Musee, 128.
Plants, in the desert, 190-91. *See also* Flowers.
Plataea, 26-7.
Plato, 27.
Poetry, English, 74, 85.
Poitiers, battle of, 84.
Poland, 10, 11, 13, 38; costumes and customs in, 16; facts about, 369.
Polar Regions, facts about, 387.
Poldering, 128.
Pole, Reginald, 92.
Poles, The, *See* Poland.
Polo, Marco, 236, 265.
Polygamy, in the Philippines, 248, 256.
Pompeii, *133, *135.
Popocatepetl, *297, 302.
Porcelain, 139, 243, 266.
Port Arthur, *37, 108; facts about, 373.
Port of Cale, 159.
Port Said, 210.
Porto Rico, facts about, 341.
Portugal, description of, 156, 159; facts about, 366.
Portugal, possessions of, facts about, 366, 381-82.
Portuguese, in China, 266; in Japan, 240.
Portuguese East Africa, facts about, 381-82.
Portuguese Guinea, facts about, 382.
Potatoes, sweet, in Africa, 169.
Potsdam, 97.
Pottery, Egyptian, 202; Greek, 24.
Praha, 13.
Prayer, Book of Common, 89.
Prester, John, 180.
Priests, Brahman, 216.
Prince Edward Island, 319; facts about, 346.
Prince Islands, facts about, 382.
Printing, 263; invented, 117; in The Netherlands, 127; in China, 265.
Procopius, 47.
Protestants, 85, 93, 125. *See also* Religion.
Provence, 151.
Prussia, 96-7; population of, 103, 360; Bismarck's influence on, 105; growth of, 106-9; facts about, 362.
Ptolemies, 208, 210.
Puebla, taken, 304.
Pulque, 312, 314.
Puppet Show, *179.
Pygmies, 162, 248.
Pyramids, 194-98, 200, 210.
Pyrenees, 151, 156.
Pytheas, 23.
Python, worshipped, 175.

Q

Quebec, city, 317-20*, 325.
Quebec, province, facts about, 346-47.
Queensland, facts about, 384.
Quilimane, 163.
Quito, 327.

R

Races, 337; in America, 300; in India, 212; in the Philippines, 246; in the Sahara, 188.
Radium, 143.
Ragatz, 114.
Ragusa, *15.
Railroads, in Belgium, 127; Canadian, 320, 324-25; Cape to Cairo, *160-69; in China, 267, 268; Damascus-Mecca, 287; in India, 213, 219; Lord Kitchener's, 169; in Mexico, 306; Siberian, 36; Spanish, 156; Uganda, 163, 168-69.
Rain, 57.
Rainy Lake District, 321.
Raleigh, Sir Walter, 94.
Ram Lila, 229.
Ramayan, 229.
Rameses II, 203.
Ratisbon, 58, 102.
Red Sea, 211.
Reformation, 10, 57, 91, 115, 116.
Reindeer, use of, 30. *42.
Religion, 337; in the Balkans, 44, 50; shown by costume, *45; break in Christian Church, 48; Crusades, 48; treaty of 1552, 59; in early Britain, 70, *73-5, 78; persecution for, 92, 124-25; in Germany, 103, 111-12; wars of, 116; divides The Netherlands, 127; in Rome, 134-35; in Sweden, 140; in Africa, 173-77, 191; in Abyssinia, 180-82, 184; in Egypt, 195, 198-99, 200, 205; in India, 213, 216, 220-24, 228; in Japan and Korea, 233, 234, 236; in the Philippines, *250, 252, 254, 256, 258; in China, 263-70; in the Holy Land, 274, 277, 279, *285; Eskimo, 295-96; in Mexico, 300, 302, 308-13.
Renaissance, *See* New Learning.
Restaurant, Chinese, *271.
Reunion, facts about, 379-80.
Revolutionary War, 319.
Rhine, The, 54, 56, 101; its scenery and history, 110-19; map of, *111.
Rhinewaldhorn, 114.
Rhoden, Inner, 115.
Rhoden, Outer, 115.
Rhodes, Cecil, 165.
Rhodesia, 165, 166; facts about, 381.
Richard Coeur de Lion, 11, 60.
Richard II, 10, 85.
Richard III, 86-7.
Richet, Professor Charles, 148.
Rio de Janeiro, *334, 335.
Rio de Oro, facts about, 382.
Rivers, in Eastern Hemisphere, 389; in Western Hemisphere, 391.
Riviera, 151.
Rockies, Canadian, *322, 324-25.
Rocio, El, 156.
Roland, Madame, 143.
Roman Forum, *130, 134.
Romans, in Britain, 67-71; in the Rhineland, 110; relics of, *68-9, 101, 135; in the Low Countries, 122.
Rome, 28, 130, 134-35.
Rosetta stone, 199.
Rotterdam, 125.
Rottweil, *98.
Roumania, 52; facts about, 366.
Roux, Professor Philbert J., 148.
Rubber, 335.
Ruhr Valley, 100.
Rumania, 52; facts about, 366.
Rupert, 318.
Russia, 108; geography of, 30-1, 366-67; language in, 32; important cities of, 32-5, 367; Siberian Railway, 36; Russo-Japanese War, 37, 237; Soviet Russia, 38; customs in, *39-40*; in World War, 109; facts about, 366-67.
Ruth, 282.
Ruthenia, customs in, *16; customs in, *17-8.

S

Sacre Coeur, Basilica of, 148.
Sacred Rock, *278.
Sadowa, Austria's defeat at, 106.
Sahara Desert, 185-90.
St. Augustine, *73-4.
St. Denis, 150.
St. Gall, 112.
St. Helena, 274; facts about, 380.
St. Lawrence River, 317, 319, 320.
St. Mark, Church of, *136.
St. Mihiel, 151.
St. Moritz, 154.
St. Peter, Church of, 130, 134, *136.
St. Petersburg, see Petrograd.
St. Pierre, facts about, 351.
St. Sophia, mosque of, *46-7, 49-50, 136.
St. Stephen, 11, 281.
St. Sulpice, Church of, 150.
St. Thomas, facts about, 382.
St. Vincent de Paul, Church of, 160.
Sakhalin, Island of, 233, 237.
Sakkarah, pyramid at, 194.
Sakura-jima, 240.
Salamanca, *157.
Salamis, battle of, 27.
Salisbury, *77.
Salmon and salmon fishing, 140, *323, 325.
Salt Lake, 191.
Salt mines, 13.
Salvador, facts about, 349.
Salzburg, 11.
Samaria, 286.
Samaritans, *285.
Samoan Islands, facts about, 342, 386.
San Marino, facts about, 365.
Sandstorms, 185.
Santa Anna, S., 304-5, 306.
Santa Catorina, Church of, 137.
Santa Maria della Grazie, Church of, 131.
Santiago de Chile, 332.
Sao Paulo, *333, 335.
Saracens, 47-8, 137.
Sarawak, facts about, 385.
Sargans, 115.
Saskatchewan, facts about, 347.
Satsuma, 243.
Savonarola, G., 133.
Saxons, 72.
Saxony, facts about, 360.
Saxony, Elector of, 59.
Scandinavia, 139.
Schaffhausen, 116.
Schaumburg-Lippe, facts about, 361.
Scheveningen, beach at, *121, 129.
Schiller, J. C. F., 96.
Schleswig, province, 105-6.
Schwartz, Berthold, 117.
Schwarzwald. *See* Black Forest.
Scotland, history of, 79, 83, 87, 94-5, 364; facts about, 362-63.
Scots, in early Britain, 70-1.
Sculpture, in Greece, 24-6.
Seals, 290, *294.
Sealskins, 292.
Seine, river, 150.
Semendria, 60-2.
Senegal, facts about, 379.
Serbia, 47, 48, 52; religion in, 44; costumes in, *45; sword dance in, *61; in World War, 109.
Serpent Island, 62.
Sete the first, *204.
Seul, 238.
Seville, 131, 156, *158.
Seymour, Jane, 89.
Shakespeare, William, 92.
Shanghai, 268, *269.
Shechem, 286.
Shintoism, 233, 234.
Shoguns, rule of the, 235-36, 240.
Shrines, in East Carpathians, *16; Hindu, *221; in Jerusalem, 281; in Mexico, 309.
Siam, facts about, 375.
Siberia, 31, 36; facts about, 367.
Siberian Railway, 36, 267.

Sicily, Island of, 135, 137.
Sidon, 22.
Sierra Leone, 173; facts about, 380.
Sigismund, of Hungary, 11, 49.
Sigmaringen, 56.
Sikhism, 220, *222.
Si-kiang, river, 261.
Silesia, 13.
Simoon, *frontispiece*, 187.
Sisera, 286.
Sistine Chapel, 134.
Sistine Madonna, 100.
Skiing, 139.
Slaves, trade in, 164; build pyramids, 198.
Slavonia, 52.
Slavs, 16; customs among, 18; religion of, 44.
Sleeping sickness, 168.
Slovaks, 10, 13.
Sloyd Seminary, 140.
Smorgasbord, 140.
Symrna, founded, 22.
Sobieski, John, King of Poland, 52.
Society Islands, facts about, 385.
Socrates, 27.
Soil, in Egypt, 210; in China, 260-62.
Solomon Islands, facts about, 386.
Solomon's Stables, *278, 281.
Solon, 24.
Somali, *183; facts about, 379-80, 381.
Sorrento, 135.
South African War, 95.
South America, 327-335; facts about, 352-56.
South Australia, facts about, 384.
South Pole, 140-387.
Southwest Africa, facts about, 381.
Soviets, 38.
Spain, war with England, 93; in The Netherlands, 124-25; description of, 156-59; facts about, 368.
Spain, possessions of, facts about, 368, 382.
Spaniards, in the Philippines, 246; in China, 266; in Mexico, 298-304; in South America, 329.
Sparrow Hills, 34.
Sparta, 22, 27-8; gymnasium of, *21; laws of, 23.
Sphinx, *194, 202.
Spitzenbergen, facts about, 387.
Spree River, 99.
Stadium, at Athens, 19, *29.
Steam, first use of, 161.
Steam-engines, invented, 161, in Africa, 166-8.
Stein, Dr. A., 264.
Stephen, of England, 82.
Stettin, 99.
Stockholm, 142.
Stone of Scone. *See* Coronation stone.
Stonehenge, 66.
Stool, Golden, 179.
Storks, in Germany, 58.
Stradivarius violin, 132.
Straits Settlements, facts about, 372.
Strassburg, 101, 117.
Stuart, James, see James I.
Stuttgart, 56.
Subamos, 255-56.
Sudan, 162, 169; French, 379.
Suez Canal, 194, 210, 211.
Suffrage, in Finland, 38; in Germany, 109.
Sugala, 184.
Suleiman, the Magnificent, 50.
Sulu Islands, 258.
Superior, Lake, 320, 324.
Superstitions, Abyssinian, 182, 184; in India, 222, 230-31; in Mexico, 313, 314.
Sweden, *138, 140-42; facts about, 268.
Switzerland, along the Rhine, 114-16; description of, *152-56*; facts about, 368-9.
Syracuse, 137.
Syria, 20, 52, 191-2.
Szechuen, 268.

T

Tabernacles, Feast of, *285.
Taj Mahal, 217, *218.
Tanganyika, facts about, 381.
Tanganyika, Lake, 165.
Taormina, 137.
Tarim, River, 264.
Tasmania, facts about, 384.
Tatooing, 254, *295.
Tea-houses, *239, *269.
Tehuantepec, Isthmus of, 297. 306; costumes on, 313.
Tell, William, 154 .
Temperature, variations in, 36, 140.
Temples, Walhalla, 59, 102; of Ephesus, 136; of Solomon, 137; on the Nile, 199; of Luxor, 205, *209; Hindu, 213, 216, *217; Buddhist, 234, 270; Japanese, 240; of Heaven, 269; in Mexico, 299-300.
Tenoclititlan, 298-9.
Tequendama Falls, 327.
Terrace-farming, 119-249.
Teutons, 110.
Texas, 304.
Thanet, Isle of, 70.
Theatres, Japanese, *244.
Thebes, 22, 28, 199, 203.
Themistocles, 27.
Thermopylæ, 23.
Thirty Years War, 10.
Thor, 140.
Thotmes III, 203.
Thuringian States, facts about, 361.
Tibbus, 189.
Tientsin, 267.
Tilly, General J. T., 57.
Time, reckoning of, 64.
Timur, 265.
Tinguians, *246, 249-54.
Tintoretto, J. R., 136.
Titian, 136.
Tivoli, 139.
Tobago, facts about, 351.
Togo, Admiral H., 237.
Togoland, facts about, 381.
Tokio, *239, 240, 243, 245.
Toledo, Spain, 159.
Tolstoy, Count Leo, *38.
Toltecs, 300.
Tomi, 62.
Tools in ancient Britain, 67.
Top-spinning, 245.
Toronto, 321.
Toy-making in Nuremberg, 102.
Toys, Egyptian, 198, 205; Japanese, 245.
Trade, *see* Industries.
Trafalgar Square, 91.
Trail, Dawson, 321.
Trains in Austria and Hungary, 14.
Trajan's Wall, 58.
Transportation, in Africa, 169; in Chile, 330; in China, 259, 268; in Japan, 244, 245; in Spain, 156. *See also* Railroads.
Transvaal, facts about, 378.
Treaties, of 1552, 59; of Nanking, 266.
Trier, 101.
Trieste, 13.
Trinidad, facts about, 351.
Trondhjem, 140.
Troy, 20.
Tsetse fly, 168-69.
Tuamotu Islands, facts about, 386.
Tuaregs, *188-89.
Tudors, reign of, 87-93.
Tuileries Gardens, 145.
Tulln, 60.
Tunghwan Desert, 264.
Tunis, facts about, 379.
Turkestan, Russian. 36.
Turkey in Asia, facts about, 374.
Turkey in Europe, 52, 109; facts about, 369.
Turks, in Hungary, 11; costumes of, *45; gain Asia Minor and Jerusalem, 48; take Constantinople, 49-50; great Sultans, 50; in Austria, 50-2; in Danubian provinces, 62.
Tuttlingen, 54.
Tutuila, facts about, 342.
Twelfth night, in Switzerland, 154, *155.
Tyler, Wat, 85.
Tyre, fall of, 22-3.
Tyrol, 10-1.

U

Ufa, 36.
Uffizi Gallery, 133.
Uganda, 165, 168; railway, 163, 169; facts about, 380.
Ulm, 56.
Union of South Africa, facts about, 378.
United States, 109; facts about, 339.
United States, possessions of, facts about, 340-42, 351.
Ural Mountains, 31, 37.
Uruguay, 332; facts about.
Utrecht, Bishop of, 122.

V

Val Verzasca, 153.
Valais, 153, *155.
Valparaiso, 330.
Vancouver, 319, 325.
Vasa, Gustavus, 38.
Vases, Greek, 24-5.
Vatican, 134.
Velasques, Diego, 159.
Venetians, 48, 49.
Venezuela, 335; facts about, 356.
Venice, 135-37.
Venus of Milo, 145.
Vera Cruz, 298, 304.
Verdun, 151.
Vergen. 58.
Veronese, P., 136.
Versailles, Palace of, 147.
Vespasian, Emperor, 134.
Vespucius, Americus, 327.
Vesuvius, Mount, *133, 135.
Via Doloroso, *276, 277.
Victor Emanuel, 11, 131.
Victoria, Queen, 94-5.
Victoria, Australia, facts about, 383-84.
Victoria, China, 270.
Victoria Falls, 162, 166.
Victoria Nyanza, Lake, 163, 169.
Vienna, *8; description of, 12-3; siege of, 52; Congress at, 127.
Viga Canal, 309.
Vikings, 75, 139, 142.
Villa Doloroso, 332.
Virgin Islands, facts about, 351.
Virginia, 94.
Vohlburg, 58.
Volcanoes, in Italy, *133, *135; in Japan, 238-40; in Mexico, 297, 302.
Volendam, *121, *129.
Volga River, 35.
Vosges Mountains, 116.

W

Wacham, 60.
Wady Halfa, 169.
Wailing place, *276, *280.
Wake Island, facts about, 342
Waldeck, facts about, 361.

Wales, 69; first Prince of, 82.
Walhalla, temple, 59, 102.
Wall, Great, of China, 263-64, 266.
Wallachia, 44.
Wankie, coalfield at, 166.
War customs, Philippine, 249.
Wars, Russo-Japanese, 37, 237; of the Roses, 86; Crimean, 95; South African, 95; "Blood and Iron", 106; Prussian-Austrian, 106; Franco-Prussian, 106; World War, 109; in the Netherlands, 124-25; Boer, 169; Chinese-Japanese, 237; Mexican War, 304-5.
Water-carriers, Egyptian, *207; Mexican, *311.
Waterfalls, in Eastern Hemisphere, 388; in Western Hemisphere, 390.
Waterloo, battle of, 94, *126, 127.
Weapons, Philippine, 249, 258.
Wedding customs, *see* Marriage customs.
Weltenburg, 58.
West Africa, 171, 175.
Western Australia, facts about, 384.
Westminster Abbey, built, 79-81.
Westphalia, 119.
Wheat, in Canada, 324.
White Island, 62.
Wight, Isle of, 72.
Wilhelmshaven, 99.
William the Conqueror, *80-2, 122.
William I, Emperor, 96, 102, 105, 107.
William II, Emperor, 96-7, 107-9.
William III, King of England, 127.
William IV, King of England, 94.
William Rufus, 82.
William the Silent (Prince of Orange), 124-25, 127.
Willoughby, Sir Hugh, 90.
Winchester, England, *77.
Windmill, Dutch, *125.
Windward Isles, facts about, 351.
Winkelried, Arnold von, 154.
Winnipeg, 324.
Winter Palace, Petrograd, 32.
Witches, 177, 313.
Wittelsbach, ship, 108.
Wolfe, General James, 319, 325.
Wolsey, Cardinal, 89.
Women, position of, in Abyssinia, 182; in China, 270; among the Eskimos, 292; in Finland, 38; in Germany, 109; in India, 224; in Mexico, 312.
World, population of, 337; races of, 337; languages of, 337; religions of, 337; governments of, 337.
World War, 104, 109, 151.
Wordsworth, William, 143.
Worms, 117.
Wukari, *172.
Würtemberg, 102; facts about, 360.
Wyclif, John, 10, 85.

X

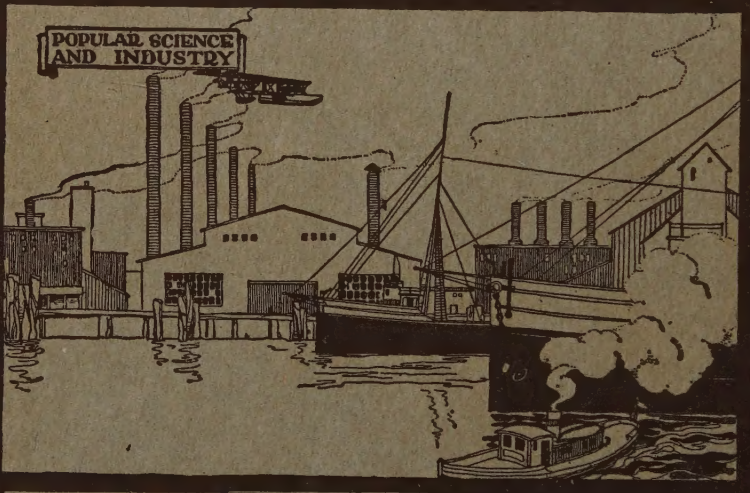
Xavier, Francis, 236.
Xenophon, 27.
Xerxes, 27.

Y

Yang-tse-kiang, The, 260, 268.
Ybbs, 60.
Yellow Sea, 260.
Yeskuwa, 180.
Yezo, Island of, 234.
Yokohama, 240, *241, 245.
Yoritomo, first Shogun, 235, 240.
York, House of, 86.
Ypres, Cloth hall at, 128.
Yturbide, 303-4.
Yukon, facts about, 347.

Z

Zacchaeus, 286.
Zambesi, river, 162, 163, 166.
Zanzibar, facts about, 380.
Zapport Glacier, 114.
Zermatt Valley, 153.
Zeus, 19, 26.
Zoo, in Uruguay, 332.
Zoroastrians, 224, *229.
Zuider Zee, 128.
Zurich, 154, *155.
Zwinger Picture Gallery, 100.



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